



# On quantifier-rank equivalence between linear orders

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## ABSTRACT

We construct winning strategies for both players in the Ehrenfeucht–Fraïssé game on linear orders. To this end, we define the local quantifier-rank  $k$  theory of a linear order with a single constant  $Th_k^{loc}(\lambda, x)$ , and prove a normal form for  $\equiv_k$  classes, expressed in terms of local classes. We describe two implications of this theorem: 1. a decision procedure for whether a set  $U$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes is consistent – whether for some linear order  $\lambda$ ,  $U$  is the set of pairs  $(\phi, \psi)$  such that  $\lambda \models \exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x})$  – which runs in time linear in the size of the formula which expresses that exactly the pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes in  $U$  are realized. The only obstacle to effectively listing the theory of linear order is the vast number of different  $\equiv_k$  classes of theories of linear order. 2. We find a finitely axiomatizable linear order  $\lambda$  which we construct inside any  $\equiv_k$  class of linear orders. We relate our winning strategies to semimodels of the theory of linear order. First, we situate our result in a historical background.

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## 0. Introduction

That the theory of ordinals is decidable is proved in [2,10,11] as an initial step in other directions. In [4] we find the decidability of the theory of ordinals proved from a game-theoretic view. The reader of this paper must be aware of the game defined in [4]. We will not use any theorem from [4], but that paper is, in any case, the right introduction to our subject. In [6] (Theorem 3, p. 411) we find infinitarily equivalent ordinals, generalizing the  $\equiv_k$ -equivalent ordinals of [4] (Theorem 12). On the other hand, Scott sentences of infinitary logic define any ordinal. In [8] we find smaller  $\equiv_k$  ordinals than those in [6] as a result of analyzing the Ehrenfeucht–Fraïssé game (hereafter, the *EF* game) to the precise solution of Theorem 0.1:

For any ordinals  $\mu, \delta$ , let  $\delta$  be a cutoff, with respect to which we see  $\mu$  as having a *body* and *tail*:  $\beta_\delta(\mu) = \{x \in \mu : x + \omega^\delta \leq \mu\}$ ,  $\tau_\delta(\mu) = \{x \in \mu : x + \omega^\delta > \mu\}$ . The separation of  $\mu$  into these two pieces is useful in defining the Cantor Normal Form (hereafter *CNF*). Note that  $\mu = \beta_\delta(\mu) + \tau_\delta(\mu)$  and  $\omega^\delta$  divides  $\beta_\delta(\mu)$ .

**Theorem 0.1 [8].** *For any ordinals  $\mu_0, \mu_1, \alpha$ ,  $\mu_0 \not\equiv_\alpha \mu_1$  holds just in case for some  $\delta < \alpha$ , one of the following holds:*

1.  $2 \times \delta < \alpha$  and  $((\delta > 0) \wedge (\omega^\delta < \mu_0 \iff \omega^\delta < \mu_1)) \vee ((\delta = 0) \wedge (0 < \mu_0 \iff 0 < \mu_1))$ ,
2.  $(\exists \gamma(2 \times \delta < \gamma < \alpha))$  and

$$\vee_{i < 2} ((\beta_{\delta+1}(\mu_i) = \beta_\delta(\mu_i)) \wedge (\beta_{\delta+1}(\mu_{1-i}) \neq \beta_\delta(\mu_{1-i})) \wedge$$

$$((\tau_\delta(\mu_i) = \emptyset) \vee (\tau_\delta(\mu_i) \setminus \{\beta_\delta(\mu_i)\} \not\equiv_{\alpha-1} \omega^{\delta+1} + \tau_\delta(\mu_{1-i}))),$$

3.  $\chi_\delta(\mu_0) \neq \chi_\delta(\mu_1)$  and  $\vee_{i < 2} \chi_\delta(\mu_i) < 2^{\alpha - (2 \times \delta)} - 1$ ,

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where  $\chi_\delta(\mu_i)$  is:

- the number of  $x$  such that  $\omega^\delta \times x < \mu_i$  and  $\omega^\delta \times x + \omega^{\delta+1} > \mu_i$ ,
- $+3$  if  $\omega^{\delta+1} \leq \mu_i$ ,
- $-1$  if  $\delta > 0$  and  $\mu_i < \omega^{\delta+1}$ ,
- $-1$  if  $\tau_\delta(\mu_i) \neq \emptyset$  and  $(\tau_\delta(\mu_i) \setminus \{\beta_\delta(\mu_i)\}) \not\equiv_{2 \times \delta} \omega^\delta + \tau_\delta(\mu_i)$ .

The Cantor Normal Form (hereafter CNF) of  $\mu$  is similar to  $\sum_\delta \omega^\delta \chi_\delta$ . The first two conditions require  $\mu_i$  to have the same CNF exponents  $\delta$ ; the final condition requires that the CNF coefficients are the same, or large. From the CNF of  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$  we find a finite set of  $\delta$  such that if the theorem fails at those  $\delta$ , it must fail at all other  $\delta$ . Theorem 0.1 describes the theory of ordinals precisely and can be used to imply other results. Our main theorem is, similarly, a solution to the EF game for linear orders:

**Theorem 0.2.** *If  $\lambda$  is a linear order and  $k$  is a finite number then there is a finite function  $A_\lambda$  mapping labels into  $\lambda \cup \lambda^+$  such that for any two linear orders  $\lambda$  and  $\lambda_0$  and any clock  $k$ ,  $\lambda \equiv_k \lambda_0$  holds just in case  $A_\lambda$  and  $A_{\lambda_0}$  have the same labels in their domains and induce the same ordering on them, and the sequences  $(Th_{k-1}^{loc}(\lambda, a) : a \in A \cap \lambda)$  and  $(\{Th_{k-1}^{loc}(\lambda, a) : b < a < c\} : (b, c) \in A^+) \text{ are identical.}$*

This theorem generalizes to  $L_{\omega_1 \omega}$ , except that  $A$  is no longer finite;  $A$  is now an infinite tree of labeled elements with ranks  $B$  for each descending sequence  $B$  of ordinals in the quantifier rank ordinal  $\alpha$ . It holds, too, for linear orders with unary relations. If we add unary relations to our vocabulary, there is an  $\equiv_0^{loc}$  class for each unary relation. With no unary relations, there is a unique  $\equiv_0$  class, i.e.,  $(\lambda, x) \equiv_0 (\lambda, y)$  for all  $x \in \lambda$  and  $y \in \lambda$ . Patterns and words in this vocabulary are described by almost locally closed sets, in Definition 4.2. Of course, these patterns arise even without unary predicates in the vocabulary. For instance, in the set of linear orders of the form  $\lambda = \sum_{i \in \omega + Z \times \eta + \omega^*} (\eta + f(i)) + \eta$  for various functions  $f$  with domain  $\omega + Z \times \eta + \omega^*$  and range  $n$ , a finite number,  $\equiv_4^{loc}$  classes define  $\{(\lambda, x) : \exists i((i \in \omega + Z \times \eta + \omega^*) \wedge (x \in f(i)) \wedge ((f(i-1), f(i), f(i+1)) = (p, q, r)))\}$  for each triple  $(p, q, r)$  of numbers  $\leq 9$ . Thus, if we choose  $n = 10$ , then a consistent set of  $\equiv_4^{loc}$  sets is a set of triples  $(p, q, r)$  which can be strung together in a consistent way. There exist consistent sets of  $\equiv_4^{loc}$  classes for which the smallest minimal almost locally closed sets are very long.

This theorem continues the following line of research: The decidability of certain linear orders was studied in [12]. In [3] we find semimodels and the theorem that it is not easier to decide the theory of a semimodel and to relate that theory to that of a (infinite, normal, non-semi) model containing it, than to decide the theory of linear order. The decidability of the theory of linear order was proved in [7] using Ramsey's theorem and noting the monotonicity of  $\{Th_k(\{z \in \lambda : x < z < y\}) : a < x < y < b\}$  as a function of  $a$  and  $b$ . Our proof of the same theorem avoids Ramsey's theorem. When we state this theorem in its local form, it can be used to prove many sentences of  $L_{\omega_1 \omega}$  to be consistent.

**Theorem 0.3.** *A set  $U$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes is  $\{(Th_k(\{a \in \lambda : a < b\}), Th_k(\{a \in \lambda : a > b\}))\}$  for some linear order  $\lambda$  just in case 1. there is an  $\equiv_k$  class  $\xi(U)$  such that for any  $(\phi, \psi) \in U$ , we have  $\exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x}) \equiv_k \xi(U)$ , and 2. there is a set  $W$  containing  $U$  and other sets of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes such that every  $V \in W$  has  $\xi(V)$  as in part 1 and such that for any  $V \in W$  and any element  $(\phi, \psi) \in V$  there exist two elements  $V_0, V_1$  of  $W$  such that  $(\xi(V_0), \xi(V_1)) = (\phi, \psi)$  and  $V_0 + \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\} + V_1 = V$ .*

In [1] we find a modification of the construction in [7] to generate a family of linear orders which intersects every  $\equiv_k$  class and which all have not only decidable, but finitely axiomatizable theories. Theorem 0.3 permits the elimination of Ramsey's theorem also from our construction of a finitely axiomatizable model in any  $\equiv_k$  class. A more practical sort of effectiveness can also be obtained: In [9] we learn that the theory of linear order is (decidable, but) intractable. In [5] we find an enumeration of the  $\equiv_3$  classes of linear orders and the statement that current methods of deciding the theory of linear order cannot enumerate the  $\equiv_4$  classes of linear orders. As a proof of concept we wrote a simple computer code which enumerates the 82988077686330  $\equiv_4$  classes of linear orders. On my laptop, it took the program two minutes to write those 8E13 sentences. There are 4E23769 sets of pairs of  $\equiv_3$  classes, almost all of which are inconsistent. The computer avoids these by eliminating small inconsistent sentences, and then ignoring any theory which contains that sentence. We cannot list the  $\equiv_5$  classes of linear order, but we can describe them both locally and globally. Size, not complexity, prevents the enumeration of  $\equiv_5$ . From the point of view of finite model theory, the most interesting results are the implications for semimodels. Semimodels are finite strings which often have interesting relationships to infinite models. Semimodels admit addition and multiplication, they can code the formation of a model by iterated application of functions (e.g., Skolem functions), and they handle local information quite easily.

## 1. Decidability: the consistency game

If  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  are  $\equiv_k$  classes of linear orders, then  $\{\lambda + \mu : \lambda \in \phi, \mu \in \psi\}$  is contained in a single  $\equiv_k$  class, which we call the sum of  $\phi$  and  $\psi$ . If  $\phi$  is an  $\equiv_k$  class of linear orders, choose a sentence  $\phi_0$  in which the variable  $x$  does not appear which defines  $\phi$  (that is, each linear order  $\lambda$  models  $\phi_0$  just in case it is in  $\phi$ ), and let  $\phi^{<x}$  be the formula, with the variable  $x$  free, obtained from  $\phi_0$  by replacing every subformula  $\exists y(\psi)$  by  $\exists y(y < x) \wedge \psi$  and replacing every subformula  $\forall y(\psi)$  by  $\forall y(y < x) \rightarrow \psi$ .

We define  $\phi^{>x}$  similarly. We define  $\phi^{(x,y)}$  similarly – by choosing a formula  $\phi_0$  which defines the  $\equiv_k$  class  $\phi$  and in which neither  $x$  nor  $y$  appears, and in  $\phi_0$  we replace every subformula  $\exists z((x < z < y) \wedge \psi)$  by  $\exists z((x < z < y) \wedge \psi)$  and replace every subformula  $\forall z(\psi)$  by  $\forall z((x < z < y) \rightarrow \psi)$ . Because  $\lambda \models_{[a/x]} \phi^{<x}$  just in case  $\{m \in \lambda : m < a\} \models \phi_0$ , which occurs just in case  $\{m \in \lambda : m < a\} \in \phi$ , we can read  $\phi^{<x}$  as “ $\phi$  holds left of  $x$ .”

For any set  $U$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes, let  $U_0$  be the set of formulas  $\{\exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x}) : (\phi, \psi) \in U\}$  and let  $U_1 = \{\neg \exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x}) : (\phi, \psi) \text{ is a pair of } \equiv_k \text{ classes not in } U\}$ , and let  $\sigma_U = \bigwedge \{U_0, U_1\}$ . For any  $\equiv_{k+1}$  class  $\mu$  with linear order  $\lambda \in \mu$ , the set  $U(\lambda) = \{\text{pairs of } \equiv_k \text{ classes } (\phi, \psi) : \lambda \models \exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x})\}$  is such that  $\sigma_{U(\lambda)}$  defines  $\mu$ . Now  $U(\lambda)$  depends only on the  $\equiv_{k+1}$  class of  $\mu$  (more,  $\lambda_0 \equiv_{k+1} \lambda_1$  holds just in case  $U(\lambda_0) = U(\lambda_1)$ ) so we write  $U(\mu)$ . The function from  $\mu$  to  $U(\mu)$  and from  $U$  to  $\sigma_U$  are inverses, i.e.,  $\mu$  is defined by  $\sigma_{U(\mu)}$  and  $U(\sigma_V) = V$  for any consistent set  $V$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes.

If  $W$  is a set of sets  $U$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  types for which there exists an  $\equiv_k$  class  $\xi(U)$  such that for any  $(\phi, \psi) \in U$ ,  $\exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x}) \equiv_k \xi(U)$ , then we define addition on  $W$ :

$$U + V = \{(\phi, \psi + Th_k(1) + \xi(V)) : (\phi, \psi) \in U\} \cup \{(\xi(U) + Th_k(1) + \phi, \psi) : (\phi, \psi) \in V\}.$$

If  $\sigma_U$  and  $\sigma_V$  are consistent sentences, and hence elements of  $\equiv_{k+1}$ , then we define  $\sigma_U + \sigma_V$  as above to be the  $\equiv_{k+1}$  class of  $\lambda + \mu$  for any/all  $\lambda$  such that  $\lambda \models \sigma_U$  and any/all  $\mu$  such that  $\mu \models \sigma_V$ . The notion of addition we have now defined for sets of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes then agrees with addition on  $\equiv_{k+1}$  classes:  $\sigma_{U+V} = \sigma_U + \sigma_V$ . So addition on  $W$  extends addition of  $\equiv_{k+1}$  classes to some inconsistent sentences  $\sigma_U$ . This is important because we will search for the consistent sentences in  $W$ , using  $W$ 's structure as a monoid.

**Definition 1.1.** The consistency game is as follows: On each turn, the game state is a finite sequence  $(c_i : i < n)$  of constants and a sequence  $(U_i : i \leq n)$  of sets of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes each of which has an  $\equiv_k$  class  $\xi(U_i)$  such that for any  $(\phi, \psi) \in U_i$ ,  $\exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x}) \equiv_k \xi(U_i)$ . The first player chooses  $i \leq n$  and an element of  $U_i$ . The second player then adds a new constant  $c$  left of  $c_i$  and right of  $c_{i-1}$  and chooses two sets  $V_0$  and  $V_1$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes and fixes for each  $i < 2$  an  $\equiv_k$  class  $\xi(V_i)$  such that for any  $(\phi, \psi) \in V_i$ ,  $\exists x(\phi^{<x} \wedge \psi^{>x}) \equiv_k \xi(V_i)$ . Player II loses unless the following conditions hold, in which case we say that player II has survived this round:

- $(\xi(V_0), \xi(V_1))$  is the element of  $U_i$  which player I chose, and
- $V_0 + \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\} + V_1 = U_i$ .

If player II has survived, then the game continues, with its game state  $(c'_j : j < n + 1)$  and  $(U'_j : j \leq n + 1)$  where  $c'_j = c_j$  if  $j < i$ ,  $c'_{j+1} = c_j$  if  $j \geq i$ , and  $c'_i = c$ , the new constant;  $U'_j = U_j$  if  $j < i$ ,  $U'_{j+1} = U_j$  if  $j \geq i$ , and  $U'_i = V_0$ ,  $U'_{i+1} = V_1$ , where  $U_i$  has been replaced by  $V_0$  and  $V_1$ . The initial state has  $n = 0$ , an empty sequence of constants, and a single set  $U_0$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes.

Now we prove Theorem 0.3: If  $W$  exists as in the statement of the theorem, then player II can play the consistency game indefinitely. If player II can play the consistency game indefinitely, and if player I exhausts every set  $U$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes which is ever created during the game, then the set of constants played, with the ordering on each pair  $c_a, c_b$  determined at the moment when the latter was added to the set of constants, is a linear order  $C$ ; we will prove that  $C \models \sigma_{U_0}$ . How can player I “exhaust” the set  $U$  if, when player I plays the first element of  $U$ , that set is immediately replaced by a pair of sets,  $V_0, V_1$ ? Each element of the sum  $V_0 + \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\} + V_1$  corresponds to an element of  $U$ . In particular,  $\{(\xi(V_0) + \emptyset, \emptyset + \xi(V_1))\}$  corresponds to the element that player I chose, after which  $U$  was replaced by  $V_0$  and  $V_1$ . We say that player I exhausts  $U$  if player I plays elements in  $U$ , or in a summand such as  $V_0$  or  $V_1$  in a sequence of sets of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes which sums to  $U$ , so that element of the summand corresponds to the desired element of  $U$ . Consider an interval  $T$  in  $C$  – either the interval left of  $c$ , right of  $c$ , or between  $c_a$  and  $c_b$ . Suppose that the parameters defining the interval existed already on the  $n$ th move, as  $c_i$ , for  $i < n$ , or as  $c_{i_0} < c_{i_1}$ , for  $i_0 < i_1 < n$ . Define  $U_T$  to be the sum of  $U_i$  over the interval  $-\left(\sum_{j < i} U_j + \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}\right) + U_i$  for the interval left of  $c_i$ ,  $\left(\sum_{j > i} U_j + \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}\right) + U_n$  for the interval right of  $c_i$ , or  $\left(\sum_{j > i_0, j < i_1} U_j + \{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}\right) + U_{i_1}$  for the interval between  $c_{i_0}$  and  $c_{i_1}$ . Now each constant in the interval  $T$  in  $C$  corresponds to an element of  $U_T$ , since either the constant already existed in  $(c_i : i < n)$ , in which case there is a summand in  $U_T$  for it, or the constant was created on the  $n$ th move or later. In that case, when the constant is played, some  $U$  will be split into  $V_0$  and  $V_1$ ; each element of that  $U$  corresponds to some elements of  $U_T$ . On the other hand, if player I exhausts each set of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes which is created, then  $U_T$  will be exhausted when each of its summands is exhausted. At that moment, there will be total functions mapping the interval  $T$  in  $C$  into the set  $U_T$ , and the set  $U_T$  into  $C$ , so that for  $c \in T$  and  $(\phi, \psi) \in U_T$ ,  $(c, (\phi, \psi))$  being in either function or its inverse implies that the set  $U_T$  can be split into intervals  $V_0$  and  $V_1$  in  $W$  so that  $\xi(V_0) = \phi$  and  $\xi(V_1) = \psi$  and  $V_0 + Th_k(1) + V_1 = U_T$ . Now we prove the following: for each  $j < k$ , for each interval  $T$  in  $C$ ,  $T \equiv_j \xi(U_T)$ . We prove this simultaneously for all intervals  $T$ , by induction on  $j$  – the correspondence between elements of  $U_T$  and elements of  $T$  such that  $(\phi, \psi)$  corresponding to  $c \in T$  implies that the interval of  $T$  left of  $c$  satisfies  $Th_j(\phi)$  and the interval of  $T$  right of  $c$  satisfies  $Th_j(\psi)$  is enough to show that  $T$  satisfies  $Th_{j+1}(\xi(U_T))$ . The base case,  $j = 0$  is in fact the same argument: if  $U_T$  is empty, let  $n$  be the turn immediately after the last parameter was defined. Then either  $T$  is the interval left of  $c_0$ , or right of  $c_n$ , or between  $c_i$  and  $c_{i+1}$  (if the parameters are not adjacent, then  $U_T$  contains a nonempty summand  $\{(\emptyset, \emptyset)\}$ , and so it is not empty!). So  $U_T$  is, then  $U_i = \emptyset$  for some  $i$ . Player I can never choose an element from  $U_i$ , so player II never defines a new constant that splits  $U_i$ . So the set of constants which are ever created satisfies  $\sigma_{U_T} = \sigma_\emptyset = Th_{k+1}(\emptyset)$ . On the other hand, if  $U_T$  is nonempty, let  $n$  be the turn immediately after the last parameter

was defined. Then either there is already some constant in  $T$ , or  $U_T$  has a single summand  $U_i \neq \emptyset$ . Player I will play to exhaust  $U_i$ , so in particular player I will eventually play in  $U_i$ , player II will then add a constant in  $T$ .

## 2. Local equivalence at an element

If  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are linear orders and  $r$  and  $s$  are assignments of variables or constants into  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$ , then  $(\lambda, r) \equiv (\mu, s)$  just in case the domain of  $r$  and  $s$  are the same set  $d$ , and the same logical formulas, with free variables among the elements of  $d$ , are the same in both models. This holds just in case  $r$  and  $s$  induce the same ordering on  $d$  and for each  $(b, c) \in d^+$ ,  $\{a \in \lambda : b < a < c\} \equiv \{m \in \mu : b < m < c\}$ . If  $\equiv$  classes of theories of linear orders respect addition, then  $\equiv$  classes of formulas (of finitary logic, infinitary logic, or even non-wellfounded logic) with free variables admit addition:  $\phi + \psi$  is the  $\equiv$  class containing those linear orders  $\lambda$  and assignments  $s$  such that  $s$  assigns the free variables of  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  into  $\lambda$  and for some cut  $(\mu, \pi) \in \lambda^+$ ,  $s$  is the union of assignments  $t$  and  $u$ , where  $t$  assigns the free variables of  $\phi$  into  $\mu$  and  $u$  assigns the free variables of  $\psi$  into  $\pi$ , so that  $\mu \models_t \phi$  and  $\pi \models_u \psi$ . In particular, if  $\lambda \models_s \phi + \psi$ , then  $s$  must assign the free variables of  $\phi$  into  $\lambda$  so that they are all to the left of the free variables of  $\psi$ . We say that  $\equiv$  respects addition if  $\phi \equiv \phi_0$  and  $\psi \equiv \psi_0$  imply that  $\phi + \psi \equiv \phi_0 + \psi_0$ . Finitary and infinitary quantifier-rank classes  $\equiv_k$  and  $\equiv_\alpha$ , as well as non-wellfounded infinitary quantifier rank  $\equiv_\lambda$  respect addition.

**Definition 2.1.** If  $\equiv$  respects addition, we define left equivalence:  $\phi \equiv^{\text{left}} \psi$  if there is some  $\equiv$  class  $\gamma$  such that for all  $\equiv$  classes  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  and all  $\equiv$  variations  $\alpha_0 \equiv \alpha$  and  $\beta_0 \equiv \beta$ ,

$$\phi + \alpha + \gamma + \beta \equiv \psi + \alpha_0 + \gamma + \beta_0.$$

Likewise,  $\phi \equiv^{\text{right}} \psi$  if there is some  $\equiv$  class  $\gamma$  such that for all  $\equiv$  and classes  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  and all  $\equiv$  variations  $\alpha_0 \equiv \alpha$  and  $\beta_0 \equiv \beta$ ,

$$\alpha + \gamma + \beta + \phi \equiv \alpha_0 + \gamma + \beta_0 + \psi.$$

Finally, for any linear orders  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  and assignments  $r$  and  $s$  of a nonempty domain into  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$ , we say  $\lambda \equiv^{\text{loc}} \mu$  just in case  $\lambda(\equiv^{\text{left}})^{\text{right}} \mu$ .

The following are properties of  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  and  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$ :

- If  $\equiv$  is an equivalence relation, then  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  is, too.
- If  $\equiv$  respects addition, then  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  does, too.
- $(\equiv^{\text{left}})^{\text{left}}$  is the same as  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$ .
- $(\equiv^{\text{left}})^{\text{right}}$  is the same as  $(\equiv^{\text{right}})^{\text{left}}$ .
- If  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  have at least one free variable, then  $\phi \equiv^{\text{left}} \psi$  and  $\phi \equiv^{\text{right}} \psi$  together imply  $\phi \equiv \psi$ .
- If  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  have at least one free variable, then for  $(\lambda, a_i)_{i < n} \in \phi$  and  $(\mu, m_i)_{i < n} \in \psi$ ,  $(\lambda, a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}) \equiv^{\text{loc}} (\mu, m_0, \dots, m_{n-1})$  holds just in case:
  - $\{a \in \lambda : a < a_0\} \equiv^{\text{right}} \{m \in \mu : m < m_0\}$ ,
  - for each  $i < n - 1$ ,  $\{a \in \lambda : a_i < a < a_{i+1}\} \equiv \{m \in \mu : m_i < m < m_{i+1}\}$ ,
  - $\{a \in \lambda : a > a_{n-1}\} \equiv^{\text{left}} \{m \in \mu : m > m_{n-1}\}$ .
- $\equiv_0^{\text{loc}}$  and  $\equiv_1^{\text{loc}}$  are trivial  $\equiv$  relations, i.e., for  $i < 2$ ,  $(\lambda, r) \equiv_i^{\text{loc}} (\mu, s)$  holds just in case  $r$  and  $s$  have the same domain and induce the same ordering on it.
- If  $\equiv$  is an equivalence relation on theories of linear order which respects addition and if there is an  $\equiv$  class  $\sigma_0$  such that for every other  $\equiv$  class  $\delta$  it holds that  $\sigma_0 + \delta + \sigma_0 \equiv \sigma_0$ , then for any  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  class  $\phi$ , the sum  $\phi + \sigma_0$  is *inextensible* in the sense that for any  $\equiv$  class  $\psi$ ,  $\phi + \sigma_0 + \psi \equiv^{\text{left}} \phi + \sigma_0$ .
- If  $\sigma_0$  exists as in the previous item, then for any  $\equiv$  classes  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  with no free variables,  $\phi(\equiv^{\text{left}})^{\text{right}} \psi$ .
- Give  $\equiv_\lambda$  some linear ordering  $E$ . On a dense linear ordering  $\eta_0$  such that every interval has cardinality  $> |E|^{|\lambda|}$ , we can define a function to  $E$  so that the sum  $\sigma_0 = \sum_{a \in \eta_0} f(a)$ ; if  $f^{-1}(a)$  is dense, then  $\sigma_0$  satisfies  $\sigma_0 + \delta + \sigma_0 \equiv_\lambda \sigma_0$ .
- If  $\sigma_0$  exists as in the previous items, then  $\sigma_0 \times \omega$  or indeed any linear order  $\gamma$  such that  $\sigma_0 + \gamma = \gamma$  is sufficient to prove  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  in the following theorem: any  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  class is  $\equiv^{\text{left}} \vee U$  for  $U$  a set of inextensible  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  classes (adding any  $\equiv$  class to the right leaves each of these  $\equiv^{\text{left}}$  classes unchanged).
- There are three  $\equiv_2^{\text{left}}$  classes of formulas with a single free variable: those  $(\lambda, a)$  such that  $a$  has an immediate successor, those  $(\lambda, a)$  such that  $a$  is the limit of a sequence descending from above, and those  $(\lambda, a)$  such that  $a$  is the greatest element of  $\lambda$ . The third  $\equiv_2^{\text{left}}$  class is the disjunction of the first two, which are inextensible.

## 3. Labeling firsts and lasts

For any linear order  $\lambda$ , let  $\lambda^+ = \{(b, c) : b \cup c \subseteq \lambda \text{ and } \forall d \in b \forall e \in c (d < e) \text{ and } \forall a \in \lambda ((\exists d \in b (a \leq d)) \vee (\exists d \in c (d \leq a)))\}$  modulo the equivalence  $(b, c) \equiv (b', c')$  which holds just in case  $\forall d \in b (\exists e \in b' (d \leq e))$  and  $\forall d \in b' (\exists e \in b (d \leq e))$  be the set of *cuts* in  $\lambda$ . There is a natural ordering on  $\lambda \cup \lambda^+$  induced from the ordering on  $\lambda$ :  $a < (b, c)$  holds just in case  $\exists d \in b (a \leq d)$ ;  $(b, c) < (d, e)$  holds just in case  $\exists f \in b (\forall g \in d (g < f))$ .

If the range of a function is a linear order then that order is induced on the function itself. If  $b$  is a function with range  $\subseteq \lambda \cup \lambda^+$  then let  $\sup b$  be the cut  $(\{a \in \lambda : \exists c \in b(a \leq c)\}, \{a \in \lambda : \forall c \in b(c < a)\})$ . We define the *infimum* similarly. If  $b$  and  $c$  are functions into  $\lambda \cup \lambda^+$ , let  $\lambda^{(b,c)} = \{a \in \lambda : \sup b < a < \inf c\}$ .

**Definition 3.1.** If  $I$  is a set of labels with any ordering and  $(b, c)$  is any cut  $(b, c) \in I^+$ , then for each formula  $\tau$  with a single free variable (rather, for every  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  which is inextensible in the universe of  $\equiv$  classes of intervals of  $\lambda$ ) we create four new labels, the elements: “the least  $\tau$  in  $(b, c)$ ” and “the greatest  $\tau$  in  $(b, c)$ ” and the cuts: “the unrealized infimum of an unbounded descending sequence of  $\tau$  in  $(b, c)$ ” and “the unrealized supremum of an unbounded ascending sequence of  $\tau$  in  $(b, c)$ .” We will abbreviate these phrases with the symbols:  $l\tau \in (b, c)$ ,  $g\tau \in (b, c)$ ,  $d\tau \in (b, c)$ , and  $a\tau \in (b, c)$ . When the context  $(b, c)$  can be inferred, we will write them simply as  $l\tau, g\tau, d\tau, a\tau$ . All labels are constructed in a wellfounded way by this rule, from  $I = \emptyset$ .

For instance, if  $E_0$  and  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  and  $E_3$  are two equivalence relations on theories of linear order, and if for each  $i < 4$ ,  $\tau_i$  is an equivalence class, then  $l\tau_0 \in (b, \emptyset)$ , where  $b$  is a function with domain  $\{l\tau_1 \in (g\tau_2 \in (\emptyset, \emptyset), g\tau_3 \in (\emptyset, \emptyset))\}$  is a label.

The element  $l\tau_0 \in (b, c)$  is the least element of type  $\tau_0$  above  $\sup b \dots$  there is no need to refer to  $c$ , unless we want to say that the least  $\tau_0$  above  $\sup b$  happens to be below  $\inf c$ . Viewing  $l\tau_0 \in (b, c)$  as the least (or infimum of a descending sequence of)  $\tau_0$  above (say) the least  $\tau_1$  above (say) the greatest (or supremum of an ascending sequence of)  $\tau_2$  below  $\dots$ , we can write the set of all labels as a tree. The first rank of the tree contains the least (or infimum) and greatest (or supremum) appearance of each type  $\tau$ ; the next rank of the tree contains the least appearance of each type above an element of the first rank, or the greatest appearance of each type below an element of the first rank. From the tree structure and the ordering induced by  $\lambda$  on its branches, we can write each label in the form given in the preceding definition.

**Definition 3.2.** If  $\lambda$  is a linear order and  $\equiv$  is an equivalence relation on theories of linear order and  $I$  is an assignment of labels into  $\lambda \cup \lambda^+$  then the  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of  $I$  is the smallest assignment containing  $I$  and for each  $(b, c) \in I^+$ , one or two elements or cuts to indicate the definable least (or infimum) and/or greatest (or supremum) of the elements of  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  in  $(b, c)$ . If  $\tau$  is realized in  $(b, c)$  then  $\tau$ 's least element(s) are definable just in case one of the following holds:

- $b = \emptyset$ , or if that fails, then
- there is a maximal element of  $b$  of any form except  $a\tau' \in (e, f)$  for  $\tau'$  a high-order equivalence class – i.e., an equivalence class in an equivalence relation which is equal to, or refines,  $\equiv$ , or that fails and
- elements of type  $\tau$  are bounded in  $a\tau' \in (e, f)$  below some element of  $\lambda$ .

If  $\tau$ 's least element(s) are definable, then  $I'$  assigns either  $l\tau \in (b, c)$  or  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  into  $\lambda^{(b,c)}$ :

- the label  $l\tau \in (b, c)$  assigned to the least  $h \in \lambda^{(b,c)}$  such that  $(\lambda, h) \in \tau$  if there is a least such, or
- the label  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  assigned to the greatest cut  $(g, h)$  such that  $h$  contains all elements of  $\lambda^{(b,c)}$  of  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$ , if that set  $h$  has no least element.

Similarly, for all  $\tau$  realized in  $(b, c)$ , the greatest element(s) of  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  are definable just in case:

- $c = \emptyset$ , or  $c \neq \emptyset$  and
- $c$  has a minimal label, and that label is not  $d\tau' \in (e, f)$  for  $\tau'$  a high-order equivalence class, or  $c$  has either no least element or has the tricky least element just described, but
- elements of type  $\tau$  are bounded in  $d\tau' \in (e, f)$  above some element of  $\lambda$ .

If the greatest element(s) of  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  are definable, then  $I'$  contains either:

- the label  $g\tau \in (b, c)$  assigned to the greatest  $h \in \lambda^{(b,c)}$  such that  $(\lambda, h) \in \tau$ , or
- the label  $a\tau \in (b, c)$  assigned to the least cut  $(g, h)$  such that  $g$  contains all elements of  $\lambda^{(b,c)}$  of  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$ , if that set  $g$  has no greatest element.

It is sufficient to consider only inextensible  $\equiv^{\text{loc}}$  classes  $\tau$ , since if  $\tau = \vee U$ , then if the least element of type  $\tau$  is definable, then so are all the elements of  $U$ , and  $\inf \tau = \inf_{\tau' \in U} \inf \tau'$ .

For instance, if we write  $e$  for the unique  $\equiv_0^{\text{loc}}$  class, the seven  $\equiv_2$  classes of linear order can be enumerated as:

$$le < ae, de < ge, de < ae, \emptyset, le = ge, le < \emptyset < ge, le < \exists x e(x) < ge.$$

That this list is a complete list of  $\equiv_2$  classes of linear orders will be proved later by appeal to Theorem 0.3: a single set  $W$  contains five of the seven consistent sets of pairs of  $\equiv_2$  classes, another set  $W$  contains three; the remaining nine sets of pairs of  $\equiv_1$  classes are quickly proved inconsistent. For quantifier rank  $k > 2$ , however, Theorem 0.3 is quaint and useless; we enumerate  $\equiv_k$  classes by describing trees of labels and  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes.

**Definition 3.3.** Order the finite sets  $\sigma$  of natural numbers lexicographically: by the largest element, then the next largest, etc. Let  $I_\emptyset(\lambda) = \emptyset$ . For each finite set  $\sigma$  of natural numbers, let  $\sigma'$  be its immediate successor in the lexicographical order<sup>1</sup> and  $n$  be the least element of  $\sigma'$  and let  $I_{\sigma'}(\lambda)$  be the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of  $I$ .

<sup>1</sup> The sets  $\sigma < \sigma'$  are a pair of immediate predecessor and successor just in case  $\sum_{i \in \sigma'} 2^i = 1 + \sum_{i \in \sigma} 2^i$ .

Consider the *EF* game of length  $k$  between two linear orders  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$  which realize the same  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes. The following lemma explains how player I can use the tree of labels to find non-local differences between  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$ . Later, we will prove that this strategy is complete –  $\equiv_k$  holds if player I cannot find a way to use this lemma;  $\neq_k$  holds if player I can.

**Lemma 3.1.** *Player I has a winning strategy in the game  $EF_k(\mu_0, \mu_1)$  game if after  $a_i \in \mu_i$  are chosen on the first move, the condition  $(1 \wedge 2 \wedge 3) \vee (4 \wedge 5 \wedge 6)$  holds at some rank  $\sigma \subseteq k-1$ ,  $\sigma \neq k-1$ , in the tree of labels:*

1.  $k-2 \notin \sigma$  and
2.  $I_\sigma(\mu_0)$  and  $I_\sigma(\mu_1)$  induce the same order on the same tree of labels and  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  are in the same cut  $(b, c)$  in  $(I_\sigma(\mu_i))^+$ , and
3. for some  $i < 2$ , some  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  is realized in  $\mu_i$  between  $\sup b$  and  $a_i$  and is not realized in  $\mu_{1-i}$  between  $\sup b$  and  $a_{1-i}$  and  $\rho$  is definable above  $\sup b$  in the sense of Definition 3.2, or
4.  $k-2 \in \sigma$  and
5.  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}(\mu_0)$  and  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}(\mu_1)$  induce the same order on the same tree of labels and  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  are in the same cut  $(b_0, c_0)$  in  $(I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}(\mu_i))^+$ , and
6. for some  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  and some  $i < 2$ , there is some  $p_i \in \mu_i^{(b, a_i)}$  such that for all  $p_{1-i} \in \mu_{1-i}^{(b, a_{1-i})}$ , if  $(\mu_0, p_0) \in \rho$  and  $(\mu_1, p_1) \in \rho$  and  $p_0$  and  $p_1$  are in  $(b_0, c_0)$  and if  $I_{\sigma \setminus \{k-2\}}(\mu_i^{>p_i})$  and  $I_{\sigma \setminus \{k-2\}}(\mu_{1-i}^{>p_{1-i}})$  assign the same labels in the same order, then conditions  $(1 \wedge 2 \wedge 3) \vee (4 \wedge 5 \wedge 6)$  hold at rank  $\sigma \setminus \{k-2\}$  in the tree of labels after  $a_0 \in \mu_0^{>p_0}$  and  $a_1 \in \mu_1^{>p_1}$  are played on the first move in the game  $EF_{k-1}(\mu_0^{>p_0}, \mu_1^{>p_1})$ .

**Proof.** Suppose condition  $(1 \wedge 2 \wedge 3)$  holds. Player I plays the element of type  $\rho$  in  $\mu_i$  between  $\sup b$  and  $a_i$ . Player II must respond with an element in  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$ , since  $k-2$ -many moves will remain after this second move in  $EF_k(\mu_0, \mu_1)$ . By condition 3, player II will only find such an element below  $\sup b$  in  $\mu_{1-i}$ . If this were a winning second move for player II in  $EF_k(\mu_0, \mu_1)$ , then it is a winning first move in  $EF_{k-1}(\mu_0^{<a_0}, \mu_1^{<a_1})$ . But by Theorem 3.1 for  $k-1$  in place of  $k$ , the first move of player II in  $EF_{k-1}(\mu_0^{<a_0}, \mu_1^{<a_1})$  must be in the same interval in  $I_\sigma(\mu_i^{<a_i})$ ; since  $k-2 \notin \sigma$ ,  $b \subseteq I_\sigma(\mu_i^{<a_i})$ . Suppose, on the other hand, that conditions  $(4 \wedge 5 \wedge 6)$  hold. Player I then plays the element  $p_i$  mentioned in condition 6. Player II must answer with an element  $p_{1-i}$  of the same  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class and (by Theorem 3.1 for  $k=1$  in place of  $k$ ) in the same interval of  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}(\mu_i)$ . If now the tree of labels  $I_{\sigma \setminus \{k-2\}}(\mu_i^{>p_i})$  differ, then player II has lost; if they agree but the elements  $a_i$  are in different cuts  $(b, c) \in (I_{\sigma \setminus \{k-2\}}(\mu_i^{>p_i}))^+$ , then by Theorem 3.1, player II has lost. Finally, if these data are the same, then condition 6 implies that we can now re-apply the lemma to rank  $\sigma \setminus \{k-2\}$  of the tree of labels  $I_{\sigma \setminus \{k-2\}}(\mu_i^{>p_i})$ . But since  $\sigma \neq k-1$ , eventually it will be conditions  $1 \wedge 2 \wedge 3$  which hold, rather than conditions  $4 \wedge 5 \wedge 6$ .  $\square$

If after the first move of the *EF* game identifies  $a_i \in \mu_i$ , player I finds that the lemma holds for  $\sigma$  and  $n < k-1$  such that  $n \notin \sigma$ ,  $a_i$  are in the same cut  $(b, c)$  of  $I_{\sigma \setminus n}(\mu_i)$ , and there is an  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  which is definable above  $\sup b$  so that an element of  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  exists between  $\sup b$  and  $a_i$  but not between  $\sup b$  and  $a_{1-i}$  then we call  $\rho$  the *anomaly* between  $\sup b$  and  $a_i$ . The following theorem's modest claim: "if player II has a winning strategy, and player II disrespects the next refinement, this leaves a game in which player I has a winning strategy" can be repeated over any series of  $\equiv_n$  refinements, when  $n$  is not in the index set  $\sigma$ , producing an index set with  $n$  as its least element. This can produce trees with various ranks, but the one way to produce a maximal tree is to consider each  $\sigma \subseteq k-1$  in lexicographical order. This then implies that if player II has a winning strategy, player II must respect  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}$ , so that  $\mu_0 \equiv_k \mu_1$  implies that the same labels are sent into  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$  in the same order.

**Theorem 3.1.** *If player II has a winning strategy in  $EF_k(\mu_0, \mu_1)$ , then for each  $\sigma \subseteq k-1$ ,*

- $I_\sigma(\mu_0)$  and  $I_\sigma(\mu_1)$  induce the same order on the same tree of labels, and
- if player I plays the first move at the image of a label in one model, then either player II plays the image of that label in the other model or player I has a winning strategy in the remainder of the game, and
- if  $(b, c) \in (I_\sigma(\mu_0))^+$  and player I plays the first move in  $\mu_i^{(b, c)}$ , then either player II plays in  $\mu_{1-i}^{(b, c)}$  or player I has a winning strategy in the remainder of the game.

Proof by induction on  $\sigma \subseteq k-1$ , ordered lexicographically: If  $\sigma = \emptyset$ , then the first two conditions require nothing and the third condition, with  $(b, c) = (\emptyset, \emptyset)$  and  $\mu_i^{(b, c)} = \mu_i$ , is nothing more than one of the rules of the *EF* game: if player I plays in  $\mu_i$  then player II answers in  $\mu_{1-i}$  or loses. Now we suppose the theorem is proved up to  $\sigma_0$ , the immediate predecessor of  $\sigma$  in the lexicographical ordering, and we prove the theorem for  $\sigma$  itself. Since  $I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i)$  must be respected by player II on the first move, we can define a cut  $(b, c) \in (I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i))^+$  so that the first move is played between  $\sup b$  and  $\inf c$ . To apply Lemma 3.1, note that the least element of  $\sigma$  is not in  $\sigma_0$ . The least element of  $\sigma$  is that  $n$  for which respecting  $I_\sigma$  means respecting  $I_{\sigma_0}$  and respecting the first and last occurrences of elements of each definable  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class. Now  $n$  is the *least* number not in  $\sigma_0 - 1 + \sum_{i < n} 2^i = 2^n$  – but the lemma applies to the *greatest* number not in  $\sigma_0$ . But if there is an anomalous  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  between  $\sup b$  and  $a_i$ , the first played element, then there is an anomalous  $\equiv_{n+1}^{\text{loc}}$  class, since the  $\equiv_{n+1}^{\text{loc}}$  class of any element realizing  $\rho$  is not realized in  $\mu_{1-i}$  between  $\sup b$  and  $a_{1-i}$ , and likewise there is an anomalous  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  class, for every  $m > n$ .



Player I's goal is to preserve a *winning condition*: That the first moves  $a_i \in \mu_i$  were played in the same cut  $(b, c) \in (I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i))^+$  and an anomaly exists – i.e., some  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  is realized in  $\mu_i$  between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_i$  and not realized in  $\mu_{1-i}$  between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_{1-i}$ , for  $n \notin \sigma_0$ . Player I then plays  $p_i \in I_{\{k-2\}}(\mu_i) \setminus I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}(\mu_i)$ ; player II must preserve  $I_{\sigma_0 \setminus \{k-2\}}(\mu_i)$  above  $p_i$ , and player I finds that the anomaly has been preserved. Player I repeats this until there are  $m+1$ -many moves left. That is, player I plays the first move to the lower end of the interval in  $I_{\{k-2\}}$  which contains  $a_i$ , then the lower end of the interval in  $I_{\{k-2, k-3\}}$  which contains  $a_i$ , and so on, until on the  $j$ th ( $j = k-1-m$ ) turn player I plays the lower end of the interval  $(b_j, c_j)$  in  $I_{\{k-2, k-3, \dots, k-j\}}$  for  $j \leq k-1-m$  in which  $a_i$  occurs. We will discuss 1. how player I can play close enough to a cut and below it (or above it) to define all the  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  classes which are definable above it (or below it) and 2. which model player I should play in so as to prevent new  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  classes from entering the interval between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_{1-i}$ . We will assume, throughout, that player II plays, on the  $j$ th move, an element of the same  $\equiv_j^{\text{loc}}$  class as player I. We will prove that player I can preserve a winning condition – the existence of the same anomaly – until there are  $m+1$ -many moves left.

*Player I's winning strategy after playing at the anomaly*: On the  $k-m$ th move (after which there will be  $m$ -many moves remaining), player I will play the anomaly – an element of type  $\rho$  which exists between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_i$ , such that  $\rho$  is not realized in  $\mu_{1-i}$  between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_{1-i}$ . Since there will remain  $m$ -many moves, player II must respond with an element of  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$ . This can only be found below  $\text{sup } b$  in  $\mu_{1-i}$ . If player II has played the second through  $k-m-1$ th moves according to a winning strategy in the EF game of length  $k$ , the first move of which identifies  $a_i \in \mu_i$  and the  $k-m-1$ th move of which identifies  $p_i \in \mu_i$ , then  $(\mu_0^{>p_0}, a_0) \equiv_{m+1} (\mu_1^{>p_1}, a_1)$ . Iterating Theorem 3.1, with  $k$  replaced by  $m+1$ , for all subsets of  $m+1$ , we find:  $I_{\{j:j < m\}}(\mu_0^{>p_0})$  and  $I_{\{j:j < m\}}(\mu_1^{>p_1})$  induce the same order on the same tree of labels and the first move, in which player I plays at the anomaly and player II plays below  $\text{sup } b \in \mu_i$ , must respect  $I_{\{j:j < m\}}(\mu_i^{>p_i})$ . However, the labels of  $b$  which depend, in the tree of labels, on  $b_{k-1-m}$  or  $c_{k-1-m}$ , the lower and upper ends of the interval  $(b_{k-1-m}, c_{k-1-m})$  can be redefined in terms of  $p_i$  – which was played near  $b_{k-1-m}$  with this goal in mind, or in terms of  $a_i$ , which is certainly  $< c_{k-1-m}$ . Thus, every label in  $b$  of tree-rank  $> \sigma_0$  corresponds to a label of  $I_{\{j:j < m\}}(\mu_i^{(p_i, a_i)})$ , where the latter labels are mapped monotonically into  $\lambda$ , so that no element of  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  exists between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_{1-i}$ , but yet player II must respect  $\text{sup } b$ . So player II loses.

*Player I's algorithm for determining which linear order to play in*: If on the  $j$ th move (for  $j \geq 1$  and  $j < k-m-1$ ) player I plans to play at  $\text{sup } b_j$ , where  $(b_j, c_j)$  is the interval in  $I_{\{k-2, k-3, \dots, k-j\}}$  in which  $a_i$  occurs, player I must find an element close to  $\text{sup } b_j$  (see the next paragraph) in  $\mu_i$  or  $\mu_{1-i}$ , choosing the correct model so as to prevent player II from “widening” the interval between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_{1-i}$  to allow an element of type  $\rho$  to be realized there, eliminating the anomaly, or “narrowing” the interval between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_i$  to remove all elements of  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\rho$  there.

- Player I plays  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  or  $l\tau \in (b, c)$  in  $\mu_i$ . Player II must respond with an element of type  $\tau$ , which is  $\geq$  the least element of type  $\tau$  in  $\mu_{1-i}^{(b, c)}$ , which will preserve the defined elements of  $b$ , or will shift all defined elements monotonically to the right, and so preserve or narrow the interval between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_{1-i}$ .
- Player I plays  $a\tau \in (b, c)$  or  $g\tau \in (b, c)$  in  $\mu_{1-i}$ . Player II either plays the image of that label in  $\mu_i$ , or plays some other, lower, realization of  $\tau$  in  $\mu_{1-i}^{(b, c)}$ , shifting all the defined elements (in particular, all of  $b$ ) monotonically to the left in  $\mu_i$ . This preserves or widens the interval between  $\text{sup } b$  and  $a_i$  and preserves the anomaly.

*Players can play close enough to any cut*: To play the label  $l\tau \in (b, c)$  or  $g\tau \in (b, c)$  player I plays the image of that label. To play near  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  or  $a\tau \in (b, c)$  player I plays an element of type  $\tau$  above  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  and below  $a\tau \in (b, c)$  and near the cut – closer to the cut than any other label which is not assigned to the same cut, and closer to the cut than any upper bound or lower bound which in Definition 3.2 triggers the third condition and allows some type  $\tau'$  to be definable. If player I plays  $x_j$  above the lower bound on elements of type  $\tau'$  below  $a\tau'' \in (b'', c'')$ , then the least element of type  $\tau'$  above  $a\tau'' \in (b'', c'')$  is the least element of type  $\tau'$  above  $x_j$ . Thus, the tree of definable labels which depend on  $a\tau'' \in (b'', c'')$  for their definition and are  $> a\tau'' \in (b'', c'')$  is unchanged if we replace  $a\tau'' \in (b'', c'')$  by  $x_0$ .

*If player II does not respect  $I_\sigma$ , then the winning condition is established*: We examine all cases and show that player II must play above some element of each  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  such that player I played above some element of  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$ . On the other hand, player II must play below some element of each  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  which player I played below. This will imply that player II must respect the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of  $I_{\sigma_0}$  or lose. Thus, if the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of  $I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_0)$  and the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of  $I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_1)$  are not identical, player II will have lost. In particular, we now prove that in each interval of  $I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i)$ , the same  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  classes begin and end in the same order for  $i = 0, 1$ : First we prove that the same  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  classes  $\tau$  are realized in any cut  $(b, c)$  in  $(I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i))^+$  and then that different  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  classes  $\tau$  begin and end with 1. a terminal element in both linear orders or 2. no terminal element in both linear orders, and that labels for those terminal elements (or for those suprema/infima) have the same order. For if  $\tau$  is realized in  $(b, c)$  in  $(I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i))^+$  and not in  $\mu_{1-i}^{(b, c)}$ , then player I can play  $\tau$  on the first turn, player II will play below  $\text{sup } b$  (or above  $\text{inf } c$ ) and player I can then exhaust  $\text{sup } b$  by playing the greatest element of  $b \cap I_{\{k-2, k-3, \dots, k-j\}}$  on the  $j$ th move. If  $\tau$  is realized a least time in  $\mu_{1-i}^{(b, c)}$  but no least time in  $\mu_i^{(b, c)}$ , then player I plays the least element of type  $\tau$  in  $\mu_{1-i}^{(b, c)}$ . Whatever element  $a_i$  player II plays, there will be an anomalous element of type  $\tau$  in  $\mu_i^{(b, c)}$  below  $a_i$ . Now we show that these firsts and lasts have the same order in  $\mu_i$  and  $\mu_{1-i}$ .

Suppose the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of  $I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i)$  maps a label to  $s_i$ , the greatest realizations of some type, or maps a label for an unrealized supremum of an ascending sequence of realizations of that type to the cut  $s_i \in \mu_i$ . Suppose the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of  $I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i)$  maps a label for the least realization of some type, or for an unrealized infimum of a descending sequence of

realizations of that type to the cuts  $r_0 \in (\mu_0)^+$  and  $r_1 \in (\mu_1)^+$ . We now list cases to show that the following occur in both models simultaneously:  $r < s$ ,  $r > s$ ,  $r = s$ .

- If  $r < s$  holds in  $\mu_i$  but not in  $\mu_{1-i}$ , then player I plays the first move at  $a_i$  between  $r$  and  $s$ . By assumption, player II must respect  $I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i)$  and reply with a move  $a_{1-i} \in \mu_{1-i}^{(b,c)}$  in the same cut  $(b, c) \in (I_{\sigma_0}(\mu_i))^+$  for which  $a_i \in \mu_i^{(b,c)}$ . The type that  $r$  labels is realized in  $(b, c)$  to the left of  $a_i$  and the type that  $s$  labels is realized in  $(b, c)$  to the right of  $a_i$ . Respecting both of these conditions means playing the first move between the cuts  $r$  and  $s$  in  $\mu_{1-i}^{(b,c)}$ . Of course, this is only possible if those cuts have the same ordering,  $r_{1-i} < s_{1-i}$ .
- Suppose  $s < r$  holds in  $\mu_{1-i}$  and  $s \geq r$  holds in  $\mu_i$ . Player I plays  $a_{1-i}$  between  $s$  and  $r$  in  $\mu_{1-i}$ . Whatever element  $a_i$  player II plays in  $\mu_i^{(b,c)}$ , either the type that  $r$  labels is realized in  $(b, c)$  to the left of  $a_i$  or the type that  $s$  labels is realized in  $(b, c)$  to the right of  $a_i$ , which is a winning condition for player I.
- Suppose  $r = s$  holds in  $\mu_{1-i}$  and fails in  $\mu_i$ . Then  $r < s$  or  $r > s$  holds in  $\mu_i$ . Proceed as in the previous two cases.

There remains one more case to check: suppose  $r$  and  $s$  are both the suprema of ascending sequences of different type in  $(b, c)$  in  $\mu_i$ . Then  $r < s$  holds just in case player I can play an element of the type which  $s$  labels, and bound all elements of type  $r$  to one side;  $r = s$  holds just in case  $r \not\leq s$  and  $s \not\leq r$ , since then they are equivalent cuts.

This theorem proves that player II must respect  $I_{(\sigma_0 \cup \{n\})n}$  if player II must respect  $I_{\sigma_0}$  and  $n \notin \sigma_0$  and  $n < k - 1$ . This explains why  $\equiv_k$  is equivalent to local equivalence in the intervals defined by exactly  $2^{k-1} - 1$ -many iterations of the refinement process. For example, if  $\equiv_5$  requires player II to respect  $I_{\{1,0\}}$  then we can prove that player II further respects the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement of this for  $n = 2$  or  $n = 3$ . If we take the  $\equiv_3^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement, and then the  $\equiv_0^{\text{loc}}, \equiv_1^{\text{loc}}, \equiv_2^{\text{loc}}, \equiv_0^{\text{loc}}, \equiv_1^{\text{loc}}, \equiv_2^{\text{loc}}$ -refinements, we will have a tree of labels that player II must respect. But, in fact, a much larger tree of labels must be respected, and we can build it by taking the  $\equiv_2^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement first (and then the  $\equiv_0^{\text{loc}}, \equiv_1^{\text{loc}}$ , and  $\equiv_0^{\text{loc}}$ -refinements) before taking the  $\equiv_3^{\text{loc}}$ -refinement. It is interesting to see that the range of the smaller tree of labels is contained strictly in the range of the larger tree of labels, often with very different labels for the same element. The largest possible tree of labels which adds a singleton  $\{n\}$  and removes the set  $n$  whenever  $n \notin \sigma$ , for  $\sigma$  indexing a rank in the tree, is clearly the tree given in Definition 3.3. However, when we argue that a certain label cannot be realized, we do not need the largest possible tree of labels, but only enough labels to define the one we want to discuss. For instance, we can describe the greatest limit point below  $x$  without calling it “the greatest limit point below the immediate predecessor of  $x$ .”

**Lemma 3.2.** For any linear order  $\lambda$  and finite set of natural numbers  $\sigma \subseteq k - 1$ , let  $I_{\sigma}^{\text{left}}(\lambda)$  be the intersection of  $I_{\sigma}(\mu)$  as  $\mu$  ranges over the  $\equiv_k^{\text{left}}$  class of  $\lambda$  and let  $I_{\sigma}^{\text{right}}(\lambda)$  be the intersection of  $I_{\sigma}(\mu)$  as  $\mu$  ranges over the  $\equiv_k^{\text{right}}$  class of  $\lambda$ . Then

$$I_{\sigma}(\lambda) = I_{\sigma}^{\text{left}}(\lambda) \cup I_{\sigma}^{\text{right}}(\lambda).$$

**Proof.** Every label in the tree of labels depends ultimately on a rank- $\{0\}$  label which is one of  $l\tau > \emptyset$  or  $d\tau > \emptyset$  where  $\emptyset$  refers to the left end, or  $g\tau < \emptyset$  or  $a\tau < \emptyset$ , where  $\emptyset$  refers to the right end. The first two are in  $I_{\sigma}^{\text{left}}(\lambda)$  and the latter two are in  $I_{\sigma}^{\text{right}}(\lambda)$ . Similarly, all labels which depend on labels which depend ultimately on the left end (and in the next higher rank, on  $l\tau > \emptyset$  or  $d\tau > \emptyset$ ) are in  $I_{\sigma}^{\text{left}}(\lambda)$  and all labels which depend on labels which depend ultimately on the right end are in  $I_{\sigma}^{\text{right}}(\lambda)$ . Of course, adding  $\equiv_k$  classes to the right can extend the  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  classes of the labels in  $I_{\sigma}^{\text{left}}(\lambda)$  and thereby superficially change the definition of the label, but it cannot change where each of these labels is assigned in  $\lambda$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.2.** For any linear order  $\lambda$  and any element  $a \in \lambda$ , from

- the ordered set  $A$  of  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda)$ , the functions  $(Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a) : a \in A \cap \lambda)$  and  $(\{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a) : b < a < c\} : (b, c) \in A^+)$ , and
- the location of  $a$  in  $A$ , and the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class of  $(\lambda, a)$ ,

we can construct the structures in the first item, with  $k - 1$  replacing  $k$ , and either  $\{d \in \lambda : d < a\}$  or  $\{d \in \lambda : d > a\}$  replacing  $\lambda$ .

**Proof.** The left labels  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{left}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$ , those labels which depend for their definition on the left end of the interval  $\{d \in \lambda : d < a\}$ , correspond to labels of relatively extended  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  classes in  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}^{\text{left}}(\lambda)$ . We can compute the  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class of each of those left labels as the truncation of  $Th_{k-2}$  of the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class given in the first item, above, truncated at  $a$ . That truncation can be performed by altering  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}^{\text{left}}(\lambda)$  through every possible  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}^{\text{left}}(\lambda')$  which agrees with  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}^{\text{left}}(\lambda)$  to the left of  $a$ , and taking  $\vee$  of the  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class in each model, or by treating the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class as a formula, and removing that part of it which is satisfied to the right of  $a$ . In this way, we replace the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $(\lambda, a)$  with the  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class of  $(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\}, b)$ . The right labels  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{right}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$  can be read from the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class of  $(\lambda, a)$ . It remains to determine an ordering of the union  $I = I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{left}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$  and  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{right}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$ , and to determine which  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  classes exist in each cut in  $I^+$ .

For any cut  $(b_0, b_1) \in (I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{left}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\}))^+$  and any cut  $(c_0, c_1) \in (I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{right}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\}))^+$ , we compute from  $(c_0, c_1)$  the set  $C_1$  of sequences  $(\tau_{\sigma} : \sigma \subseteq k - 2)$  for which there exist elements of type  $\tau_{\sigma}$  in order between  $(c_0, c_1)$  and  $a$  and



the set  $C_0$  of sequences which do not exist between  $(c_0, c_1)$  and  $a$ . We reverse these: There is an element of  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  below  $C_1$  below  $a$ , but not below  $C_0$  below  $a$  just in case for each sequence  $(\tau_\sigma : \sigma \leq k-2)$  of  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  classes, where  $n$  is the least element of  $k-2$ , we form the following label and find it to be  $< a$ :

- the least element(s) of  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  above  $b_0$ ,
- for each  $\equiv_n^{\text{loc}}$  class, in descending lexicographical order, from  $\tau_{\{j:j < k-1\}}$  to  $\tau_\emptyset$ , the least element of type  $\tau$  above the previous label.

Similarly, we invert the dependency of  $\exists \tau \in (c_0 \in \dots g \tau_0 \in (\emptyset, a), c_1 \dots a \tau_0 \in (\emptyset, a))$  on  $a$  into a dependency of  $a$  on sequences in  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{left}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$ . For instance, if  $a$  is very far from the left end, then  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{left}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\}) < I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{right}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$ ; the total order on their union is that the one linear order simply precedes the other.

On the other hand, for each  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  there is a sequence of labels inverting  $c \in c_0 \cup c_1$  such that there is an element of type  $\tau$  above  $b_0$  and below  $b_1$  and above  $c$  in  $\{d \in \lambda : d < a\}$  just in case the location of  $a$  in  $I_{\{n:n < k-1\}}$  shows  $a <$  the label. Let  $c'$  be the label on which the assignment of  $c$  depends:  $c$  is the least  $\tau_0$  above  $c'$  or the greatest  $\tau_0$  below  $c'$ . If  $c$  is in  $c_0$ , then we define the next label to be the greatest  $\tau_0$  below the previous label in the sequence. If  $c$  is in  $c_1$ , then we define the least  $\tau_0$  above the previous label. Repeat this for each label in the sequence of dependency, until  $c$  is the greatest  $\tau_i$  below  $a$  (i.e., there are no more labels on which  $c$  depends). Define the next label to be the element of type  $\tau_i$  closest to the previous label (where “closest” means the greatest  $\tau_i$  below the label, if  $c <$  the label, and where “closest” means the least  $\tau_i$  above the label, if  $c$  is above the label). If  $a <$  some label, then the  $l_\tau \in (b_0, b_1)$  mentioned in the definition of the label is an element of type  $\tau$  between  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ . If  $c$  is in  $c_1$ , then the label mentions the least element of type  $\tau_0$  above this element of type  $\tau$ , and by induction,  $a >$  the label implies that  $c'$  and the rest of what defines the right labels will be found between this element of type  $\tau$  and  $a$ . If  $c$  is in  $c_0$ , then the label mentions the greatest element of type  $\tau_0$  below this element of type  $\tau$ , and by induction,  $a >$  the label implies that  $c'$  and the rest of what defines the right labels will be found between this element of type  $\tau$  and  $a$ . This ends the proof of the lemma.

Now by induction on subsets  $\sigma$  of  $k-2$ , we can locate each element of  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{right}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$  within the ordering  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{left}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$  and determine the set of  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  classes between those left and right assignments of labels. By the induction hypothesis, we know the  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  classes realized between any elements of  $I_{\{i:i < k-2\}}^{\text{left}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$  and of  $I_{\sigma_0}^{\text{right}}(\{d \in \lambda : d < a\})$ , for  $\sigma_0$  the lexicographical predecessor of  $\sigma$ . So, a fortiori, we know the  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  classes realized, for  $n \leq k-2$ , since  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  refines  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$ . This allows us to compare, in any interval  $(b, c)$ , the least  $\tau$  and the greatest element of some other  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class – the least  $\tau$  precedes the greatest  $\tau_1$  just in case something of type  $\tau$  is realized between  $b$  and the greatest  $\tau_1$ . Further, when a right label lies between left labels  $b$  and  $c$ , we can determine which  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  classes are realized between  $\sup b$  and the right label and which  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  classes are realized between the right label and  $c$ . This ends the proof of Theorem 3.2.  $\square$

Now we prove Theorem 0.2: That  $\equiv_k$  implies identical trees of labels, identical orderings  $A$  on them, and identical  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  sequences on  $A$  and  $A^+$  follows from Theorem 3.1. That  $\equiv_k$  holds when these data are identical follows from Theorem 3.2, since if the data are identical, then player II can choose to play so as to respect  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda_i)$  and  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$ . Then, by Theorem 3.2, data sufficient to prove  $\equiv_{k-1}$  will be identical on either side of the played elements  $a_i \in \lambda_i$ , since this data depends only on the location of  $a_i$  within the  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda_i)$  and on the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class of  $(\lambda, a_i)$ .

#### 4. Effective decision procedures and completions

Searching naïvely for a witness  $W$  as in Theorem 0.3 is not effective at deciding the  $\equiv_3$  or  $\equiv_4$  classes of linear orders, since there are 6E14 sets of pairs of  $\equiv_2$  classes and 4E23769 sets of pairs of  $\equiv_3$  classes; the number of potential witnesses is the power of those sets. We would do better to search for the data of Theorem 0.2. Then we will need an alternate game, a *local consistency game* to determine which datasets are consistent.

If  $U$  is a set of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes, with or without an additional single  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left, and with or without an additional single  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right, and  $V$  is likewise, then we define  $U + V$  just in case the same  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  is on the right of  $U$  and on the left of  $V$ , or there is no  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right of  $U$  or on the left of  $V$ . If that holds, then let  $U + V = U \cup V \cup \{\tau\}$  or  $U + V = U \cup V$  if there is no  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right of  $U$  or on the left of  $V$ , and  $U + V$  has on the left the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class that  $U$  has on the left (if any), and  $U + V$  has on the right the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class that  $V$  has on the right (if any).

**Definition 4.1.** The *local consistency game* is the following: On each turn, the game state is a finite sequence  $(c_i : i \leq n)$  of constants, a sequence  $(m_i : i \leq n)$  of markers that either mark  $c_i$  as a cut or mark  $c_i$  with an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class, and a sequence  $(U_i : i < n)$  of sets of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes. The first player has two types of moves:

- Player I chooses  $i < n$  and an element  $m$  of  $U_i$ . The second player then adds a new constant  $c$  left of  $c_i$  and right of  $c_{i-1}$ , with mark  $m$  an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class, and chooses two sets  $V_0$  and  $V_1$  such that  $V_0 + V_1 = U_i$  such that  $V_0$  has the element  $m$  on

the right and  $V_1$  has the element  $m$  on the left. The game state is then the finite sequence of  $n + 1$ -many elements and  $n + 2$ -many sets obtained by marking  $c$  with  $m$  and replacing  $U_i$  by the pair  $V_0, V_1$ .

- Player I chooses  $i \leq n$  and a label in  $I_{[i:i < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(m_c)$ , say, to the right of  $c_i$ , such that every label on which this label depends has already been played. Player II chooses a constant  $c > c_i$  ( $c$  may exist already or not;  $c$  may by necessity be beyond all  $c_i$ , especially if  $k$  is large and  $(U_i : i < n)$  is small – either in that it is a short sequence or in that its elements  $U_i$  are small). The constant  $c$  is marked with an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class just in case the label describes the “least” or “greatest”  $\tau$ , and not the unrealized infimum or supremum of an infinite sequence of elements of type  $\tau$  – player II intends that in the resulting linear order,  $c$  will be where that label, relative to  $c_i$ , must be assigned. Otherwise, the constant  $c$  is marked as a cut. Player II chooses new sets  $V_0, V_1$  such that if  $V_0$  is the set between  $c_i$  and the new constant  $c$ ,  $\{Th_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}(\rho) : \rho \in V_0\}$  is the set of  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  classes which  $m_c$  says exists below the label.

The conditions on whether player II has survived grow as the game progresses. They are a set of conditions of two types: 1. that between certain constants  $c$  and  $d$ , all  $U_i$  ever created must omit  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  or 2. that for a certain constant  $c$ , every interval immediately to the right of  $c$  must realize  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$ . A new condition is created every time player I plays a move of the second type. If the label is  $l\tau_0 \in (b, c)$  or  $d\tau_0 \in (b, c)$ , then the omission condition is that  $\tau_0$  is never realized between  $b$  and the new constant. If the label is  $g\tau_0 \in (b, c)$  or  $a\tau_0 \in (b, c)$ , then the omission condition is that  $\tau_0$  is never realized between the new constant and  $c$ . If the label is  $a\tau_0 \in (b, c)$ , then we require that every set ever created immediately below the new constant realizes  $\tau_0$ . If the label is  $d\tau_0 \in (b, c)$  then we require that every set ever created immediately above the new constant realizes  $\tau_0$ . Player II survives this move if all the conditions developed so far are met.

The initial state has any number of constants with any markings, and sets  $U_i$ . For instance, the initial state could be the data of Theorem 0.2, which determine a general  $\equiv_k$  class. Or the initial state could be a single set  $U_0$  with an element on the left or not, and an element on the right or not. If the initial state has a single set  $U_0$ , then there is an initial constant  $c_0$  on the left; it is marked with  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  just in case  $U_0$  has  $\tau$  on the left. There is an initial constant  $c_1$  on the right and the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $U_0$  has on the right is  $m_1$  (nothing, or an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class).

We say that player I plays an *exhaustive* strategy if player I mentions every  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class in every interval  $U_i$  ever created, and mentions every label in  $I_{[ij:j < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(m_i)$  for every constant  $c_i$  ever created which is marked with an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class and not marked as a cut. If player II has a winning strategy in the consistency game and if player I plays an exhaustive strategy, then the set of constants which are not marked as cuts order grows into a model of the local classes in the initial state – a linear order  $\lambda$  with an element for each initial constant  $c_i$  for  $i \leq n$  which is not marked as a cut, and which realizes exactly the local types in  $U_i$  for each  $i < n$ . On the one hand, every constant  $c_i$  marked with an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class eventually realizes that  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class, as player I exhausts the labels in  $I_{[ij:j < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(m_i)$  and marks them accordingly and player II cannot violate  $m_i$  without losing. On the other hand, every element  $\tau$  in every set  $U_i$  ever created corresponds to some constant  $c$ , because player I has exhausted each set  $U_i$ .

The consistency of a set  $U_0$  of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes can be decided quickly, since the conditions on consistency are that for each  $\tau_i \in U_0$  which is postulated to exist, the labels in  $I_{[ij:j < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(\tau_i)$  have, in turn, fuller descriptions as  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes. The set of things realized between a constant  $c_i$  and its neighbors is a set  $\subseteq U_0$  which omits some type, and hence is a strict subset of  $U_0$ . In this way, we reduce the question of whether  $U_0$  is consistent to a myriad of questions about whether smaller sets are consistent. Once those smaller questions are solved, call  $H_{(\tau_0, U, \text{label})}$  the set of formulas  $\phi_{(\rho, V)}$  which expresses that the set  $V$  of local types is realized, and  $\rho$  is realized at the end, for each pair  $(\rho, V)$  such that  $\rho \in U_0$  could extend a particular label in  $I_{[ij:j < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(m_i)$  and  $V$  could be the set of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes realized between  $c_i$  and its label  $\rho$ .  $U_0$  is consistent just in case the Horn theory

$$\bigwedge_{\tau \in U_0} \bigwedge_{(\text{label} \in I_{[ij:j < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(\tau_0))} (\tau(x) \rightarrow (\bigvee_{H_{(\tau_0, U, \text{label})}} \phi_{(\rho, V)}))$$

is consistent. Satisfying that Horn theory means constructing strings of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes until the local labels of each  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class is satisfied. However, as in the linear consistency game of Theorem 0.3, we can stop satisfying local labels as soon as the satisfaction process becomes repetitive. The resulting finite structures which show how to string local classes together in a model  $\lambda$  are the following.

**Definition 4.2.** An almost locally closed set is any nonempty  $A \subseteq \lambda \cup \lambda^+$  such that for each  $a \in A$  there is some  $a_0 \in A$  such that  $(\lambda, a) \equiv_{k-1} (\lambda, a_0)$  and there is a homomorphism  $h$  from the ordered set  $I_{[i:i < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a_0)$  into  $A$  sending  $l\tau \in (b, c)$  to the least element between  $h(b)$  and  $h(c)$  of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$ , and sending  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  to the greatest cut  $(e, f)$  in  $\lambda^+$  such that  $f$  contains every element between  $\sup b$  and  $\inf c$  of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$ , and likewise for  $g\tau \in (b, c)$  and  $a\tau \in (b, c)$ . For each label  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  or  $a\tau \in (b, c)$  of  $I_{[i:i < k-1]}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a_0)$ ,  $A$  also contains an “example”: an element of type  $\tau$  above  $d\tau \in (b, c)$  (or an element of type  $\tau$  below  $a\tau \in (b, c)$ ) such that for any  $g \in \lambda$  between the cut and the example, there is an  $h \in A$  not between the example and the cut, such that  $(\lambda, c, d, g) \equiv_{k-1} (\lambda, c, d, h)$ . For each  $\equiv_{k-2}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  which  $Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a_0)$  knows to exist between two labels,  $A$  contains an *example*: an element of type  $\tau$  between  $h$  of those two labels.

Among the almost locally closed sets which contain an element with  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$ , we are especially interested in the minimal sets, i.e., those sets  $A$  for which there is no almost locally closed proper subset of  $A$  which also realizes  $\tau$ .

These sets help us to define a finitely axiomatizable linear order in any  $\equiv_k$  class. We call  $\sigma$  a *cut-state* if it contains a single set  $U_0$  of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes, with or without an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left end and with or without an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right end, since it is the state of the linear consistency game at a cut  $(\{c_{i-1}\}, \{c_i\})$  in the set of constants. We call a cut-state  $\sigma$  *consistent* if player II can win the linear consistency game in which  $\sigma = (c_0, c_1), (m_0, m_1), (U_0)$  is the initial condition. For each consistent cut-state  $\sigma$  we will write a sentence  $\delta_\sigma$  which expresses that the elements of  $\sigma$  are realized densely. We might be tempted to insist that for all  $x_0 \in \lambda$  and for all  $x_1 \in \lambda$  (if  $(\lambda, x_0, x_1)$  satisfies  $\sigma$ , then  $(\lambda, x_0, x_1) \models \delta_\sigma^{(x_0, x_1)}$ ). This invites a study of the consistency of a family  $\{\delta_\sigma : \sigma \in W\}$  of complete sentences, on overlapping intervals. If the consistency of such a set of sentences can be decided, then we can define completions without  $\equiv_k^{\text{loc}}$  classes. But Theorem 0.2 allows us to construct a generic  $\equiv_k$  class of linear order in stages, as in the linear consistency game, while controlling only the local  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes in each gap, and not the set of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes realized in each gap. Admittedly, the theory of linear order can be described, decided, and completed, using overlapping intervals as the basic building block. Instead, we use local neighborhoods as the basic building block with which we construct, decide, and complete theories of linear order.

**Definition 4.3.** Suppose  $x_0 \in \lambda$ ,  $x_1 \in \lambda$  and there is an almost locally closed set  $A \subseteq \lambda$  containing  $\{x_0, x_1\} \subseteq A$  such that  $(\lambda, x_0, x_1)$  satisfies  $\sigma$ , and  $A$  is minimal among the almost locally closed sets containing  $\{x_0, x_1\}$ . Then let  $\delta_\sigma$  be

$$(\exists x_a : a \in A, x_0 < a < x_1)$$

$$\bigwedge_{a,b \in A \cap \lambda, \text{adjacent}} \delta_{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_a), \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : x_0 < x < x_1\}, Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_1)}^{(x_a, x_b)}.$$

If  $\sigma$  indicates a nonempty set of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ , then for  $\tau$  the  $\equiv_m^{\text{loc}}$  class of any element of  $\sigma$ , the label  $l\tau > x_0$  or  $d\tau > x_0$  will be assigned below  $x_1$ . On the other hand, each element of  $A$  is defined in relation to some other element of  $A$ , so that in each gap between elements of  $A$ , some part of  $\sigma$  is not realized. Therefore we have defined  $\delta_\sigma$  in terms of  $\{\delta_\rho : \rho \text{ is a proper subset of } \sigma\}$ .

**Definition 4.4.** Suppose  $\sigma$  is not satisfied within one minimal almost locally closed class, as was the case in the preceding definition. Suppose  $x_0 \in \lambda$  and  $y_1 \in \lambda^+$  (and consider the possibilities, too, that the left end is a cut or the right end is an element) and that  $(\lambda, x_0, y_1)$  satisfies the cut-state  $\sigma$ . Since  $x_0 \in \lambda$ , find an almost locally closed set  $A_0 \subseteq \lambda$  containing  $x_0$ . Let  $\delta_\sigma$  assert the existence of  $A_0$ :

$$(\exists x_a : a \in A_0 \cap \lambda, x_0 < a < y_1)$$

$$\bigwedge_{a,b \in A_0 \cap \lambda, \text{adjacent}} \delta_{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_a), \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : x_a < x < x_b\}, Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_b)}^{(x_a, x_b)}.$$

Let  $\sigma_{-A_0}$  be a set of almost locally closed sets (subsets of  $\lambda$ ) such that  $\sigma$  requires the existence of exactly the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes  $\cup \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a) : a \in A\} : A \in \sigma_{-A_0} \cup \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a) : a \in A_0, x_0 < a\}$ . Let  $\delta_\sigma$  assert that every  $x$  in  $(x_0, y_1)$  is  $\equiv_{k-1}$  to a first move made in  $A_0$ , or is part of an almost locally closed set  $\equiv_{k-1}$  to something in  $\sigma_{-A_0}$ :

$$\forall x((x_0 < x < y_1) \rightarrow (\exists z((\bigvee_{b \in A_0} z < x_b) \wedge (\lambda, x_0, x, y_1) \equiv_{k-1}(\lambda, x_0, z, y_1))) \vee$$

$$(\bigvee_{A \in \sigma_{-A_0}} (\exists x_a : a \in A \cap \lambda)(\bigvee_{a \in A \cap \lambda} x_a = x) \wedge$$

$$\bigwedge_{a,b \in A \cap \lambda, \text{adjacent}} \delta_{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_a), \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : x_a < x < x_b\}, Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_b)}^{(x_a, x_b)})).$$

Let  $\delta_\sigma$  further assert that above  $A_0$  the elements of  $\sigma_{-A_0}$  are realized without either upper or lower bound, so that every element is  $\equiv_{k-1}$  to a first move in  $A_0$  or all possible elements of  $\sigma_{-A_0}$  are realized below it, and that, without condition (since  $y_0 \in \lambda^+$ ), all elements of  $\sigma_{-A_0}$  are realized above it:

$$\forall x((x_0 < x < y_1) \rightarrow ($$

$$((\exists z((\bigvee_{b \in A_0} z < x_b) \wedge (\lambda, x_0, x, y_1) \equiv_{k-1}(\lambda, x_0, z, y_1))) \vee$$

$$(\bigwedge_{A \in \sigma_{-A_0}} ((\exists x_a : a \in A \cap \lambda)(x_0 < x_a < x) \wedge$$

$$\bigwedge_{a,b \in A \cap \lambda, \text{adjacent}} \delta_{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_a), \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : x_a < x < x_b\}, Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_b)}^{(x_a, x_b)})))))$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \wedge (\wedge_{A \in \sigma_{-A_0}} ((\exists x_a : a \in A \cap \lambda)(x < x_a < y_1) \wedge \\
& \quad \bigwedge_{a,b \in A \cap \lambda, \text{adjacent}} \delta_{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_a), \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : x_a < x < x_b\}, Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_b)}))) \\
& \text{Let } \delta_\sigma \text{ further require that the elements of } \sigma_{-A_0} \text{ are realized densely – for every pair of elements } x < y, \text{ if } x \text{ is not } \equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}} \text{ to a} \\
& \text{first move played in } A_0 \text{ and such that } \{x, y\} \text{ is not spanned by a single element of } \sigma_{-A_0} \text{ then every element of } \sigma_{-A_0} \text{ is realized} \\
& \text{between } x \text{ and } y: \\
& \forall x \forall y ((x_0 < x < y < y_1) \rightarrow ( \\
& (\exists z ((\bigvee_{b \in A_0} z < x_b) \wedge ((\lambda, x_0, x, y_1) \equiv_{k-1} (\lambda, x_0, z, y_1)))) \\
& \bigvee \bigvee_{A \in \sigma_{-A_0}} ((\exists x_a : a \in A \cap \lambda) \\
& ((\bigwedge_{a,b \in A \cap \lambda, \text{adjacent}} \delta_{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_a), \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : x_a < x < x_b\}, Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_b)})) \\
& \wedge (\bigvee_{a \in A \cap \lambda} x_a = x) \wedge (\bigvee_{a \in A \cap \lambda} x_a = y))) \\
& \bigvee (\wedge_{A \in \sigma_{-A_0}} ((\exists x_a : a \in A \cap \lambda)(x < x_a < y) \wedge \\
& \quad \bigwedge_{a,b \in A \cap \lambda, \text{adjacent}} \delta_{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_a), \{Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : x_a < x < x_b\}, Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x_b)}))))).
\end{aligned}$$

The conjunction of the foregoing four sentences is what we call  $\delta_\sigma$ .

If  $\sigma$  indicates that no  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes are realized between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ , then  $\delta_\sigma = Th_k(\emptyset) \wedge$  some information about the local class of the left end (if there is one) to the right of the interval, and information about the local class of the right end (if there is one) to the left of the interval. For example, if there is an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left and an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right, but  $\sigma$  is empty, then these two classes can be realized at a pair of immediate predecessor and successor. The formula  $\delta_\sigma$  is then much like an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class, in that it determines an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{left}}$  class right of the pair, and an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{right}}$  class left of the pair. If  $\sigma$  has no  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left or on the right and is empty, then  $\delta_\sigma$  is  $Th_k(\emptyset)$  since the second sentence in the definition above says that every  $x$  is part of an almost locally closed set in  $\sigma_{-A_0}$ :  $\forall x((y_0 < x < y_1) \rightarrow \bigvee \emptyset)$  is  $Th(\emptyset)$ .

Now we define, by induction again on  $\sigma$ , a model of  $\delta_\sigma$ . Suppose that models of  $\delta_\rho$  exist whenever  $\rho$  is a proper subset of  $\sigma$ .

**Definition 4.5.** If  $A \subseteq \lambda$  is an almost locally closed set, minimal among those realizing a particular  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class, then let  $\mu_A$  contain  $A \cap \lambda$  and a copy of  $\lambda_\rho$  in every cut in  $A^+$  (note that we include all of  $A$ , not only  $A \cap \lambda$ , on purpose) in which the set  $\rho$  is realized, perhaps with an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left or an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right. Let the least and greatest elements of  $A$  be  $a_0$  and  $a_1$ . By the definition of an almost locally closed set, there exist  $b_0, b_1 \in A$  such that  $(\lambda, a_i) \equiv_{k-1} (\lambda, b_i)$ . Let the half-open interval in  $\mu_A$  between  $a_i$  and  $b_i$ , including  $a_i$  and not  $b_i$ , be  $\mu_i$ . Let  $\lambda_A = \mu_0 \times \omega^* + \mu_A + \mu_1 \times \omega$ . In this way we make out of an almost locally closed set an interval for the linear order  $\lambda_A$ .

Suppose  $\sigma$  is as in Definition 4.3, i.e., that there is a single almost locally closed set  $A$  such that if  $\sigma$  describes an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left, there is some  $x_0 \in A$  such that  $(\lambda_A, x_0)$  is in that class, and if  $\sigma$  describes an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right, there is some  $x_1 \in A$  such that  $(\lambda_A, x_1)$  is in that class, and such that between  $x_0$  (or  $x_0 = (\emptyset, \lambda_A)$ , if  $\sigma$  does not describe an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left) and  $x_1$  (or  $x_1 = (\lambda_A, \emptyset)$ , if  $\sigma$  does not describe an  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right),  $(\lambda_A, x_0, x_1)$  satisfies  $\sigma$ , and such that  $A$  is minimal among all almost locally closed sets containing two elements  $x_0, x_1$  of the given  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes. Then choose that  $A \subseteq \lambda$  and elements  $x_0, x_1$  for which 4.3 defines the density formula  $\delta_\sigma$  and add to  $\lambda_\sigma$  constants for elements of  $A$  realizing the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class that  $\sigma$  describes on the left, if there is one, and the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class that  $\sigma$  describes on the right, if there is one. For instance, if  $\sigma$  describes neither a left nor a right element, then  $\lambda_\delta = \lambda_A$ .

Suppose otherwise, i.e., that no one almost locally closed set  $A$ , minimal among those that realize two  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes, realizes every  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class described by  $\delta$ . If  $\sigma$  has the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class  $\tau$  on the left and no  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right, let  $A_0$  be the minimal almost locally closed set containing an element  $a_0 \in A_0$  of type  $\sigma$  as chosen in Definition 4.4, let  $\sigma_{-A_0}$  be the set of almost locally closed sets chosen in Definition 4.4, and let  $\lambda_\delta$  be  $(\lambda_A, a_0) +$  a dense shuffle of  $\{\lambda_A : A \in \sigma_{-A_0}\}$ .

**Theorem 4.1.** If  $\sigma$  is a set of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes with or without a single  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left and with or without a single  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the right,  $\lambda_\sigma$  is a linear order with one or more constants which satisfies  $\delta_\sigma$ , with the constants satisfying  $\delta_\sigma$ 's single type on the left or right; the remaining  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes are realized between these constants.

**Proof.** If  $\sigma$  is satisfied within a single linear order  $\lambda_A$ , for  $A$  a single almost locally closed set, then  $\lambda_\sigma$  was chosen in the previous definition's first paragraph to satisfy  $\sigma$ . If  $\sigma$  is not satisfied within a single  $\lambda_A$ , then  $\delta_\sigma$  requires that the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class on the left is part of a minimal almost locally closed set  $A_0$  – the second paragraph of the previous definition defines  $\lambda_{A_0}$  – and  $\delta_\sigma$  requires that the  $\delta_\sigma$  requires something similar on the right. Finally,  $\delta_\sigma$  requires that almost locally closed sets in  $\sigma_{-A_0}$  be densely ordered. In the last paragraph of the previous definition, we find that  $\lambda_\delta$  does in fact densely order  $\{\lambda_A : A \in \sigma_{-A_0}\}$ . It remains to check that in each interval in each  $\lambda_A$ , between any  $a_0$  and  $a_1 \in A$ , such that the set  $\rho$  of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes is realized between  $a_0$  and  $a_1$ , then  $\lambda_\rho$ , with constants for  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  if they are in  $\lambda$  and not  $\lambda^+$ , satisfies  $\delta_\rho$  with the constants  $a_i$  interpreting whatever  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes  $\rho$  requires on the left and right. By induction on strict subsets of  $\sigma$ , we may assume this is true. As the base case, if  $\sigma$  is empty, then  $\delta_\rho$  describes the empty set and  $\lambda_\rho$  is the empty set.  $\square$

By Theorem 0.2,  $\mu_0 \equiv_k \mu_1$  holds just in case  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$  have certain data in common. That data form an initial state of the local consistency game. So, for any  $\equiv_k$  set, we take this initial state, extend its  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes to almost locally closed sets, and write  $\delta_\sigma$ . For any finite number  $k$ , for any linear order  $\lambda$ , the  $\equiv_k$  class of  $\lambda$  is determined by one such initial state for the local consistency game. For such a state, we form  $\lambda_\sigma$  in each interval, for  $\sigma = U_i$ , and by cutting the models  $\lambda_\sigma$  at the constants which refer to the locations of the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes on the left of  $U_i$  and the right of  $U_{i-1}$ , we form a model of the entire initial state. A subsequence  $(c_i : i_0 < i < i_1)$  of the constants may be close, in that the sets  $U_i$  between them is small. Then it is likely that a single almost locally closed set which is minimal among almost locally closed sets containing even  $c_{i_0}$  will contain them all. We could then form the single set  $\lambda_A$  to explain the whole sequence  $(c_{i_0}, U_{i_0}, c_{i_0+1}, \dots, c_{i_1})$ , though the theoretically simpler definition is simply to form  $\lambda_A$  on each triple  $c_i, U_i, c_{i+1}$ , to cut it at the constants for  $c_i$  and  $c_{i+1}$ , and to add these linear orders together. In any case, wherever there are constants  $c_i < c_{i+1}$  such that no one almost locally closed set which is minimal among those containing elements with the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes of  $c_i$  and  $c_{i+1}$  realizes all of  $U_i$ , then we choose an almost locally closed set  $A_i$  which is minimal among those containing an element with the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class of  $c_i$  and an almost locally closed set  $A_{i+1}$  which is minimal among those containing an element with the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class of  $c_{i+1}$  and realize the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes left over from  $U_i$  densely between  $(\lambda_{A_i}, c_i)$  and  $(\lambda_{A_{i+1}}, c_{i+1})$ . By the following theorem, we are justified in calling the linear order which is the piecewise sum, over constants  $(c_i, i \leq n)$ , of dense linear orders  $\lambda_\delta$ , the *piecewise-dense model*  $PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$  of  $Th_k(\lambda)$ .

**Theorem 4.2.** Let  $k$  be any finite number; let  $\lambda$  be any linear order. Then the following equivalence holds:  $\lambda \equiv_k PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$  and  $PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$  is finitely axiomatized by

$$Th_k(\lambda) \wedge \bigwedge_{a,b \in I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda), \text{adjacent}} \delta_{(Th_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, x) : a < x < b)}^{(a,b)}$$

where instead of postulating the existence of elements  $x_a$  for each  $a$  in the set of indices  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda)$  and restricting  $\delta$  to occur between  $x_a$  and  $x_b$ , we instead use the fact that  $a$  and  $b$  are definable elements and cuts in  $\lambda$ , and we restrict  $\delta$  to occur among the set of elements  $d \in \lambda$  such that  $d$  is above the defined cut  $a$  and below the defined cut  $b$ .

**Proof.** As in the previous theorem,  $PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$  satisfies  $\delta_\sigma$  for each adjacent pair of elements  $a, b \in I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda)$ , where  $\delta$  describes the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class classes realized between the defined elements or cuts  $a$  and  $b$ . That is,  $Th_k$  of the interval between  $a$  and  $b$  only requires that the local classes in  $\sigma$  be realized between the definable elements or cuts  $a$  and  $b$ . The formula  $\delta_\sigma^{(a,b)}$  adds to this a choice about how the local classes form into almost locally closed sets, insists that this happens regularly (uniformly within the interval  $(a, b)$ ), and insists that these almost locally closed sets are realized densely. But since this certainly implies that exactly the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes in  $\delta$  are realized, for any first move played in  $(a, b)$  in  $\lambda$  or  $PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$ , player II can answer with an element which has its  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class in  $\delta$  and which is realized between  $a$  and  $b$ . This implies by Theorem 3.2 that the linear orders left and right of the played elements are  $\equiv_{k-1}$ . To see that  $\lambda \equiv_k PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$  is finitely axiomatized by the given formula, we will compute its  $\equiv_{k+m}$  class from the given formula, for any natural number  $m$ . By Theorem 0.2, the  $\equiv_{k+m}$  class is determined by sequences  $(Th_{k+m-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a) : a \in I_{\{i:i < k+m-1\}}(\lambda) \cap \lambda)$  and  $(\{Th_{k+m-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a) : b < a < c\} : (b, c) \in (I_{\{i:i < k+m-1\}}(\lambda))^+)$ . For each natural number  $m$ ,  $I_{\{i:i < k+m\}}(\lambda)$  adds labels for the first and last occurrence of each  $\equiv_{k+m}^{\text{loc}}$  class. Those  $\equiv_{k+m}^{\text{loc}}$  classes which are realized in  $\lambda_{A_i}$  for  $A_i$  the almost locally closed element containing the  $i$ th element of  $I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda)$ , are realized as  $\lambda_A$  orders them – by induction on proper subsets  $\rho \subseteq \sigma$ , the intervals in  $\lambda_A$  determine where these  $\equiv_{k+m}^{\text{loc}}$  classes begin and end. The remaining  $\equiv_{k+m}^{\text{loc}}$  classes which are realized in  $PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$  are realized in  $\lambda_A$  for  $A \in \sigma_{-A_0}$  (or  $A \in \sigma_{-A_0, -A_1}$ ), sets of almost locally closed sets which realize all  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes not realized in  $A_0$  (or not realized in  $A_0$  or in  $A_1$ ). Again, by induction on proper subsets of  $\sigma$ , we can determine which  $\equiv_{k+m}^{\text{loc}}$  classes are realized in  $\lambda_A$ . It is easy to see that density will force these  $\equiv_{k+m}^{\text{loc}}$  classes to be realized without lower or upper bound and to be realized all the way down to the cut  $(\lambda_{A_0}, \text{the shuffle of } \sigma_{-A_0})$ .  $\square$

## 5. Semimodels

Unlike previous sections, this section describes a topic without the motivation of a main theorem to which everything trends. Instead we gather together some results on *semimodels*, a rich concept.



Theorem 0.3 shows that for any consistent set  $U$  of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes, a finite set  $W$  of information witnesses the consistency of  $U$ . The proof of Theorem 0.3 adds this twist: if player I plays an exhaustive strategy in the linear consistency game in Definition 1.1, and if player II plays according to a function  $(f_0, f_1)$  from  $W$  to  $W \times W$ , then other variations in player I's strategy have no effect on the linear order  $\lambda$  which is created during the game – each element of  $\lambda$  is waiting to be created because  $W$  defines it in terms of other elements of  $\lambda$  which are waiting to be created, and the order in which player I goes about turning these into played constants does not change the set of elements which are ultimately created, nor its ordering. That is, “ $\lambda$  is built in stages according to  $W, (f_0, f_1)$ ” is a complete description of  $\lambda$ . However, we went ahead and defined  $PWD(Th_k(\lambda))$  and proved in Theorem 4.2 that this  $\lambda$  has a complete description in first-order logic over the vocabulary  $<$ . The simpler definition “ $\lambda$  is built in stages according to  $W, (f_0, f_1)$ ” can be expressed over the vocabulary  $<$  in a logic which is first-order and has the additional capacity that it recognizes “stages.”

Given any linear order  $\lambda$ , for each pair  $x_0, x_1$  of elements of  $\lambda$ , let  $U(\lambda, x_0, x_1) = U(Th_{k+1}(\{x_2 \in \lambda : x_0 < x_2 < x_1\}))$  be the set of pairs of  $\equiv_k$  classes realized as  $(Th_k(x_0, x_2), Th_k(x_2, x_1))$  for various  $x_2$  between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ . The relationship between  $W, (f_0, f_1)$  and the  $\equiv_{k+1}$  class  $U(\lambda)$  of  $\lambda$  is complicated. If it were possible to interpret each complete description  $W, (f_0, f_1)$  as a set  $U(\lambda)$ , we would have a complete theory in the given  $\equiv_{k+1}$  class. Theorem 0.3 checks that  $Th_{k+1}(\lambda)$  is consistent by finding that for any constants  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  which are defined and adjacent at some stage, those constants define an interval  $(x_0, x_1)$  (similarly, one constant which was at some stage the least defined constant defines intervals with no left endpoint or no right endpoint, and no constants define the entire linear order itself) such that  $U(x_0, x_1)$  is an element of a set  $W = \{U_l : l \text{ is an interval in } \lambda\}$  so that for  $U \in W$  and for any of  $U$ 's elements, e.g.,  $(Th_k(x_0, x_2), Th_k(x_2, x_1)) \in U_{(x_0, x_1)}$ , there exists a pair  $(V_0, V_1)$  of elements of  $W$  such that  $(\xi(V_0), \xi(V_1)) = (Th_k(x_0, x_2), Th_k(x_2, x_1))$  and  $V_0 + (\emptyset, \emptyset) + V_1 = U_{(x_0, x_1)}$ . In  $\lambda$ , there must exist an element  $x_2$  between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  such that  $Th_k(x_0, x_2) = \xi(V_0)$  and  $Th_k(x_2, x_1) = \xi(V_1)$ . There must exist Skolem functions  $f_0$  and  $f_1$  for the formula  $\forall U \in W (\forall (\phi, \psi) \in U (\exists V_0 \exists V_1 ((\xi(V_0), \xi(V_1)) = (\phi, \psi)) \wedge (V_0 + (\emptyset, \emptyset) + V_1 = U_{(x_0, x_1)})))$ , which expresses consistency. But for triples  $x_0, x_1, x_2 \in \lambda$  such that  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  were never adjacent during the construction of  $\lambda$ ,  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  can have the same set  $U_{(x_0, x_1)}$  and the triples  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  can have the same  $(Th_k(x_0, x_2), Th_k(x_2, x_1))$ , while the pair  $(U(x_0, x_2), U(x_2, x_1))$  may be very different from the value

$$(f_0(U_{(x_0, x_1)}), (Th_k(x_0, x_2), Th_k(x_2, x_1))), f_1(U_{(x_0, x_1)}, (Th_k(x_0, x_2), Th_k(x_2, x_1))))$$

of those Skolem functions! If  $\lambda$  has been created in stages according to the functions  $(f_0, f_1)$  from  $W$  to  $W \times W$ , then  $\lambda$  has some triples which obey  $(f_0, f_1)$  (at least, those triples  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  for which  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  were at one point adjacent), but  $\lambda$  might well have triples which do not obey  $(f_0, f_1)$ . That every triple in  $\lambda$  obeys  $W, (f_0, f_1)$  can be expressed in first-order logic as  $\forall x_0 (\forall x_1 (\chi))$  where  $\chi$  is the formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \bigwedge_{U \in W} (\sigma_U^{(x_0, x_1)} \rightarrow (\forall x (\bigwedge_{(\phi, \psi) \in U} ((\phi^{(x_0, x)} \wedge \psi^{(x, x_2)})) \rightarrow \\ ((f_0(U, (\phi, \psi)))^{(x_0, x)} \wedge (f_1(U, (\phi, \psi)))^{(x, x_1)})))) \end{aligned}$$

If this formula is consistent, it finitely axiomatizes any model  $\lambda$ . For we could compute  $Th_{k+m}$  of any interval  $(x_0, x_1)$  in  $\lambda$  as  $\sigma_Q$  where  $Q$  is the set of pairs of  $Th_{k+m-1}$  theories of intervals  $(x_0, x)$  and  $(x, x_1)$  for various  $x$  in the interval  $(x_0, x_1)$ .

That is, if player II has a winning strategy in the consistency game and plays that strategy as a function, and if that strategy turns out to hold of all triples the resulting linear order is complete. Every linear order can result from player II's play in the consistency game, so long as player II adds some “randomness” to the strategy. For some initial states  $U_0$  there are sets  $W$  which prove that  $U$  is consistent, so there is always a function  $f$  which constructs a linear order. But in general, there are pairs  $x_0, x_1$  which arise in the tree of constants constructed during play which were never neighbors during the game, and yet which, at the end of the game, have the same state  $U_{(x_0, x_1)}$  as some pair  $y_0, y_1$  which were neighbors during the game. How can we describe the linear order which is built during the consistency game in which player II plays a strategy which is a function? Semimodels are a good way to describe, up to  $\equiv$ , models which are built according to repeated rules, because they address the notion of “stages.”

**Definition 5.1** [3]. A semimodel is a nested sequence  $(M_i : i < \omega)$  of finite sets with a common ordering on  $\cup_{i < \omega} M_i$ . We call  $(M_i : i < k)$  the rank  $k$  part of  $M$ . We say  $M \models^{\text{semi}} \phi$  if  $(M_i : i < \omega) \models \phi^{\text{semi}}$ , where  $\phi^{\text{semi}}$  is the relativization of  $\phi$  in which we replace any subformula  $\exists x \psi$  of  $\phi$  which occurs within the scope of  $n$ -many quantifiers by  $\exists x ((x \in M_n) \wedge \psi)$  and we replace any subformula  $\forall x \psi$  of  $\phi$  which occurs within the scope of  $n$ -many quantifiers by  $\forall x ((x \in M_n) \rightarrow \psi)$ .

$$\text{Let } \chi_1 = ((\forall x_0 \forall x_1 \chi) \wedge (\forall x_1 \forall x_0 \chi)).$$

Now  $\{\chi_1, \exists y_0 (\chi_1), \exists y_0 (\exists y_1 (\chi_1)), \dots\}$ , the set containing  $\chi_1$  with any number of dummy quantifiers prepended in front of  $\chi_1$ , describes up to  $\cong$  the countable semimodel built by iterating the Skolem functions  $f_0$  and  $f_1$ . Thus, every  $\equiv_k$  class contains a linear order with a simple semimodel description. Semimodels were introduced with the following theorem in mind:

**Theorem 5.1** [3]. If  $U$  is a class of finite semimodels, and the following hold:

1.  $U$  is recursively enumerable.
2. For any formula  $\phi$  and any semimodel  $L \in U$  such that the rank of  $L$  as a semimodel is the rank of  $\phi$  as a formula, if  $L \models^{\text{semi}} \phi$ , then  $L$  extends to a full linear order  $\lambda$ , such that  $\lambda \models \phi$ .

3. For any formula  $\phi$  and any linear order  $\lambda$  such that  $\lambda \models \phi$ ,  $\phi^{\text{semi}}$  holds in some semimodel  $L \in U$ ,

then the theory of linear order is decidable.

**Proof.** Enumerate the implications of the theory of linear order, and look for  $\neg\phi$ . Meanwhile, enumerate elements of  $U$ , and look for  $L \in U$  of rank equal to the quantifier rank of  $\phi$ , such that  $L \models \phi$ . By condition 2, some linear order  $\lambda$  models  $\phi$ , too. By condition 3, if  $\phi$  is consistent, then this procedure terminates in the discovery of a semimodel of  $\phi$ .  $\square$

The second condition rejects a number of intuitive semimodels, if the semimodels  $(M_i : i < \omega)$  which are defined by repetitive play of a winning strategy in a consistency game are intuitive and if  $(M_i : i < \omega)$  extends to  $\cup_{i < \omega} M_i$ . These structures are described up to  $\cong$  in the class of countable semimodels, by a theory which affixes dummy quantifiers to the formula  $\chi_1$ , given above. If there were a model of any element of that semi-theory, there is a model of the whole theory, since dummy variables do not alter whether a model satisfies a sentence, or not. The model would be finitely axiomatized by  $\chi_1$ . For some winning strategies in the consistency game, there is no model of  $\chi_1$ . These semimodels must be excluded from  $U$ . Even if  $\chi_1$  is not consistent, the semimodels  $(M_i : i < \omega)$  have a consistent union and a simple semi-theory, even though the theory of the linear order  $\cup_{i < \omega} M_i$  is not  $\chi$ , i.e., for some natural number  $k$ , it holds, for many winning strategies in the consistency game, that  $(M_i : i < k) \not\models_k^{\text{semi}} \neg 1 \cup_{i < \omega} M_i$ . We write the rank  $k$  part of a semimodel as the sequence  $(s_i : i < n)$  where  $s_i$  is the least number  $n$  such that the  $i$ th element of  $M_{k-1}$  is  $M_n$ . From such a sequence we recover the semimodel's stages as  $M_j = \{i : s_i \leq j\}$ . We add semimodels by concatenating their sequences – i.e., we write one after the other. We multiply semimodels  $N \times M$  by replacing every element of  $M$  of rank  $i$  by a copy of  $N$  in which every number has been increased by  $i$ . This usually produces a lot of waste which we can then trim away, finding a smaller sequence which is  $\equiv_k$ .

**Lemma 5.1.** If  $M$  is a semimodel and  $\mu$  is a model, then the following are equivalent:

- For every sentence  $\phi$  of quantifier rank  $k$ ,  $M \models_k^{\text{semi}} \phi$  just in case  $\mu \models \phi$ .
- Player II has a winning move in the EF game between  $M$  and  $\mu$ , where on the  $j$ th move, any move played in  $M$  must be played in  $M_j$ .

**Proof.** If there is a sentence  $\phi$  violating the first item, then player I can use that as a winning strategy in item II. On the other hand, from a winning strategy for player I in item II we can create a formula  $\phi$  which is satisfied in  $\mu$  just in case it is not semimodel satisfied in  $M$ .  $\square$

If one or both of those conditions occur, we say  $M \equiv_k^{\text{semi}} \mu$ . The  $\equiv_2$  classes of linear orders have semimodels:

$\emptyset, 0, 00, 000, 100, 001, 101.$

**Lemma 5.2.**  $(0)^{2^{k-1}} (1)^{2^{k-2}} (2)^{2^{k-3}} \dots (k-1)^{2^0} \equiv_k^{\text{semi}} \omega.$

**Proof.** We play the EF game between the semimodel and  $\omega$  – in the semimodel the  $j$ th move is restricted to  $M_j$ . We answer a large natural number with the last 0. To the right, this leaves the statement of the lemma for  $k-1$ , which holds by induction. To the left, this leaves  $(0)^{2^{k-1}-1}$  which is  $\equiv_k^{\text{semi}}$  to any large, finite linear order, as the reader may wish to prove by induction.  $\square$

A sequence  $(s_i)$  is an  $\equiv_k^{\text{semi}}$  semimodel for the integers,  $\mathbb{Z}$  if 1. it tapers, from 0 to  $k$ , at least as slowly as in the preceding lemma and 2. it is continuous – it never ascends from  $j$  to  $j+2$  or descends from  $j+2$  to  $j$ , without the value  $j$  in between.

**Lemma 5.3.** If  $E \equiv_k^{\text{semi}} \eta$ , the countable dense linear order without endpoints, then  $E$  with every element increased by one  $+(0) + E$  with every element increased by one  $\equiv_{k+1}^{\text{semi}} \eta$ .  $101 \equiv_2^{\text{semi}} \eta$ ;  $2120212 \equiv_3^{\text{semi}} \eta$ .

**Proof.** Like  $E$ ,  $\eta$  has only one type of element. If we assign the variable  $x$  to an element of that type, the  $k$ -quantifier theory of  $\eta$  left of  $x$  or right of  $x$  is the  $k$ -quantifier theory of  $\eta$ . Base case:  $\emptyset \equiv_0^{\text{semi}} \eta$ .  $\square$

To these examples, and the properties of  $\times$  and  $\sum$  for linear orders, we can also add semimodel versions of the random shuffle of a number of linear orders, and create a semimodel for any element of the hierarchy  $M_{LL}$  of [7], since that hierarchy is defined by  $+$ ,  $\times\omega$ ,  $\times\omega^*$  and shuffle. But we do not find semimodels especially convenient for defining the shuffle – the resulting semimodel is very large, and repeats many sequences so that it is easy to define but unwieldy to work with. Instead, semimodels handle  $\equiv_k^{\text{loc}}$  classes gracefully, and short semimodels in each  $\equiv_k$  class can be obtained from the data of Theorem 0.2. The following theorem allows us to write semimodels in each  $\equiv_k$  class which are shorter than  $M_{LL}$  semimodels, and much shorter than those expressing the Skolem functions of Theorem 0.3:

**Theorem 5.2.** For any linear order  $\mu$  and any finite  $k$ , there is a semimodel  $M$  which is  $\equiv_k^{\text{semi}} \mu$  such that  $|M_0| = |I_{\{i:i < k-1\}}(\lambda) \cap \lambda| + \sum \{|Th_{k+m-1}^{\text{loc}}(\lambda, a) : b < a < c\} : (b, c) \in (I_{\{i:i < k+m-1\}}(\lambda))^+\}$  the size of  $M_k$  is bounded by  $|M_0|$  times an upper bound on the size of the semimodels which express the various  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes in  $\mu$ .

**Proof.** We write semimodels for  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes as follows: let 0 represent the element whose  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class we wish to describe, and add on either side add semimodels for  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{left}}$  and  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{right}}$  classes. An  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{left}}$  class has as its semimodel any  $M$  such that each  $\equiv_{k-1}$  class  $\phi$  in the  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{left}}$  class has a semimodel  $M + N$ . A model in which a set of local types exists can be obtained by simply concatenating semimodels for those local classes. By Theorem 0.2, we know that an  $\equiv_k$  class is equivalent to a sequence of elements with determined  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes, and sets of  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  classes between them. The concatenation of a sequence of semimodels, one for each label and one for each  $\equiv_{k-1}^{\text{loc}}$  class supposed to exist between the labels  $\models^{\text{semi}}$  the desired  $\equiv_k$  class.  $\square$

The inextensible  $\equiv_2^{\text{loc}}$  classes of a single free variable have semimodels:

$$\{12021, 101, 1201, 1021\}.$$

An  $\equiv_3$  class realizing  $|U|$ -many of these has a semimodel with at most  $3 + 3 + |U| \times 5$  elements. This upper bound is almost tight: the smallest semimodel of the theory  $le < lf < le < \{12021, 101, 1201, 1021\} < ge < gf < ge$  has 14 elements, while this theorem suggests the semimodel

$$000 + 12021 + 101 + 1201 + 1021 + 000,$$

i.e., we can eliminate 8 of the lower-order elements without affecting the  $\equiv_3^{\text{semi}}$  class of the semimodel.

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